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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 27, 1905.

The Week.

The far-reaching import of the Supreme Court's decision that the ten-hour-day law in bakeries is unconstitutional is evidenced by the utterances of the Unionist leaders. It speaks poorly for the Unionists' case in either law or morals that Mr. Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, is unable to make a better argument than that he presented on Tuesday week before the Quill Club. His treatment of the decision was such as tc obfuscate his hearers both as to the law and the facts involved. He averred that if the court "had seen the conditions that prevail even under the ten-hour law, they would have believed that it was within the police power of the State to regulate the hours." So far as the abstract of the decision shows, there was no attempt made to prove that the conditions prevailing in bakeries are prejudicial to life or health. Moreover, the court expressly affirmed the police power of the State to extend to the correction of such conditions. Having apparently garbled the facts, Mr. Gompers proceeded to distort the law. Rhetorically asking his hearers what they would do if the Supreme Court had affirmed a ten-hour day unconstitutional in their own occupation, Mr. Gompers declared that as for himself he would strike until he had won the right "which the Supreme Court calls unconstitutional in law." Mr. Gompers's right to strike is undoubted, but the right which the Supreme Court calls unconstitutional is the right of a tyrannous labor union to prevent citizens from working longer than ten hours a day, if they will.

The proceedings just brought against certain railroads at the instigation of the Interstate Commerce Commission for violation of the safety-appliance act cover the two most important points of that law. In one case, the alleged offence was the hauling of a freight car not provided with automatic couplers; in the other, the operation of cars not provided with brakes controllable from the locomotive. The automatic coupler is now in practically universal use, and the violations in this particular are merely sporadic; but the air-brake requirement has been a prolific source of difficulty. The original regulation that every train must contain enough air-brake cars in connection to control it without resort to the hand brake was too vague, and two years ago the law was amended so as to require one-half the cars in every train to have working air-brakes. So long as any considerable number of freight cars are without air-brakes or have their mechanism out of order, the railroads will encounter constant difficulties in making up trains. If every car except one in a train, for instance, has its air-brakes in perfect condition, while that one is out of order, the railroad is violating the law unless the defective car is shifted to a place in the rear part of the train. Thus the air-brake law involves in the yards a good deal of extra work of a somewhat exasperating character. It is one of the points on which there is a natural temptation to "take chances."

The Senate has lost this year, in the one case by the turn of politics, in the other by death, two members of the type in some ways the most valuable in the work of legislation, and certainly the hardest to replace. Cockrell, the Democrat, and Platt of Connecticut, the Republican, who died on Friday, were alike distinguished for ripe experience, extraordinary knowledge of the details of lawmaking, intense application to small as well as great tasks, and judgment and probity in which their colleagues placed absolute reliance. The service of men of this type is of a kind which the casual observer of legislation finds it hard to appreciate, but to the value of which fellow-workers always give generous testimony. It was not until late in his career that Orville H. Platt began to be recognized as one of the real leaders of the Senate. In fact, the attaching of his name to the most important piece of Cuban legislation made him better known to the country at large than ever before. He was always quick to dispute on the floor of the Senate any insinuation that the new Cuban republic was not in every sense an independent nation, while, as the representative of a tobacco-growing State, his advocacy of Cuban reciprocity showed a breadth of view too rarely seen when sound statesmanship and parochial interests conflict.

John Sharp Williams of Mississippi has announced himself a candidate for the United States Senate against Senator H. D. Money. From a national point of view, it is to be hoped that Mr. Williams may obtain the office he aspires to. His leadership in the House has been adroit and forceful, and his place would not be an easy one for the minority to fill. But it seems not impossible that the gain to the Senate will more than compensate for the "lost leader" in the House. The heavy and stifling air of the Senate, the placidity with which it ratifies the will of its creators, the corporations, and the majestic effrontery with which it smiles at public opinion, ought to be changed for the better by the presence of Mr. Williams. His advent might perceptibly move the waters of that dead sea.

The lower house of the Illinois Legislature has delivered a characteristic blow at the classified civil service. After toying for some time with a comprehensive plan to put employees of the State under the rules, the members, by a bit of clever political juggling, rejected it and sent to the Senate a substitute emasculated to suit the most sturdy spoilsman. A demand for the reform was included in the platforms of both parties last summer, and its importance was emphasized by Mr. Deneen in his campaign for the Governorship. In fulfilment of the Republican pledges, Representative Norden, chairman of the civil-service committee, introduced into the House a serious and sweeping measure. As the spoilsmen's reply to the call for reform, Representative Lindly brought in a "freak" bill, designed to turn over the Democratic city administration of Chicago to the Republican Civil Service Commission of Cook County. This bill was solemnly debated at two sessions of the House, and, directly after its defeat, Mr. Norden's measure was called up and beaten. As a sop to the reformers, the House then passed a bill placing the employees of the State charitable institutions under the civil-service rule — excepting the superintendents, chief clerks, and one stenographer for each institution! As one critic has pointed out, there is actually only a corporal's guard of janitors and scrubwomen affected by the bill.

In the case of Justice Warren B. Hooker the Assembly Judiciary Committee has now taken all the testimony, and is preparing a report. One important charge against Hooker, substantiated before the legislative committee, was not even touched on by the State Bar Association—an attempt to deprive the city of Dunkirk of the use of its own land. Without going into all the details, it is enough to say that Hooker and Lester F. Stearns, one of the State Tax Commissioners, were joint proprietors of a building which adjoined property of the municipality of Dunkirk. For the sake of giving this structure more light and making it more valuable, Hooker used his influence with a fellow-justice of the Supreme Court, White of Buffalo, to secure an injunction forbidding Dunkirk to build on its tract. Justice White signed the order without giving it much attention, but when he

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learned of the irregularity of the proceeding, he himself had the order vacated. Thus Hooker failed to profit by a bit of characteristic trickery. The building just mentioned is the one in regard to the rental of which George W. Beavers was so accommodating. When the structure was completed in October, 1901, Hooker and Stearns leased the ground floor for the post-office at $1,350 annually for ten years. In February, 1902, they persuaded Beavers to cancel the lease and raise the sum to $1,500, on the pretext of allowing the Government whatever space it might need in the basement. Finding the game easy and remunerative, they went to Beavers again in May, 1902, and had the rental fixed at $2,000 for the same space as before—less a room in the basement for the Western Union Telegraph Company. In February, 1904, when the methods of Beavers were becoming pretty well known, the Postmaster-General cancelled the third lease, and informed Hooker and Stearns that he would pay no more than $1,350. This, as rents go in Dunkirk, is ample. Hooker helped conduct the negotiations with his dear friend Beavers.

Much of the testimony in the public lighting inquiry in this city is of so technical a nature as to confuse the really interested parties who pay the bills. For their sake a recapitulation of some of the main avowals of the representatives of the lighting monopoly may be of service. It has come out, first, that the Consolidated Gas Company is grossly overcapitalized, and is charging an inordinate price for gas; second, that it is operating in several instances under outlawed charters; third, that there is a great discrepancy between the actual valuation and the tax assessment of its properties; fourth, that its method of metering gas is crude and inequitable; fifth, that the company is evading desperately all inquiries into the status of the conduits for pipes and wires, the exclusive possession of which insures it against possible competition. In fine, there have been ample admissions both of excessive profits and of far-reaching disregard of law. The most promising tactics for those who wish to see proper control asserted over this public-service corporation is to work for a legislative reduction of the price of gas, and to probe searchingly the illegal monopoly maintained over the street conduits. The inquiry has already justified Mayor McClellan's courageous policy in refusing to renew contracts with this company until the reasonable remuneration has been judicially ascertained. He also deserves praise for disavowing the acts of Commissioner Oakley.

In most of its aspects, the sordid tragedy which came to light in Milwaukee banking circles on Monday is too familiar and commonplace to invite more than perfunctory comment. The bank president whose head is turned by watching the enormous profits of speculation; who throws into such a "deal" first his own money, then money stolen from the bank over which he presides; whose speculation goes wrong, leaving him to face his angry directors, his panic-stricken depositors, his astonished social acquaintances, and the State's Prison—these are unfortunately old and well-known incidents of what we call our "financial booms." No touch of familiar circumstance is omitted in the case of President Bigelow. He "occupied a foremost place" in the affairs of Milwaukee. He had even been honored with that coveted distinction, the presidency of the American Bankers' Association. To make the picture complete, let us add that the speculation in which he indulged was conducted under the auspices of a vulgar gambling ring, whose unscrupulousness, recklessness, and ignorance were notorious enough to warn away any intelligent business man. These danger signals had no such effect, any more than the tawdry personality of Ferdinand Ward kept James D. Fish from throwing the Marine Bank's deposit fund into Ward's speculations. It is the wearisome story of the paralysis, not only of business probity and honor, but of ordinary common sense, which occurs when an officer of trust is infected with the get-rich-quick delusion. There will be little question who is to blame, if the public voice should suddenly be raised in an undiscriminating outcry against all fiduciary officers who have allowed themselves to be even remotely associated with what look like schemes of financial graft. If the public fails to draw accurate distinctions between using an institution's funds in an unscrupulous attempt to corner the wheat market, and using them to swell commissions of trustees concerned in good, bad, or indifferent "underwriting" schemes, the participants in such deals will have no right to complain.

The organization that rules Philadelphia to its own great profit finds itself now with a bankrupt city on its hands, and, in order to provide funds, proposes to pawn the municipal gas plant. The United Gas Improvement Company is now operating the plant under a lease which will expire in 1927. The annual payments to the city under the terms of the contract have increased from some $193,000 in 1897 to a little more than $650,000 in 1904. Now, the organization proposes to abrogate the present contract and make a new lease for fifty years, from January 1, 1908, in consideration of a reduction of 10 cents a thousand in the price of gas and a lump payment of $25,000,000—terms exceedingly profitable to the gas company, as is shown by tables published in the newspapers that oppose the deal. These tables indicate that the normal increase in the use of gas, according to the figures of the past eight years, would bring into the city treasury in fifty years, under the terms of the existing contract, at least $100,000,000, and before the expiration of the present lease over $31,000,000. But, of course, the big sum for immediate needs could not be realized by letting a fair contract stand, and the organization must have money to pay its favorites who build the city's sewers and engineer the Republican vote. The alternative of raising funds by increasing the tax rate has not been considered—that way lies danger to the machine, which, after all, must draw its power from the voters.

No man could have met death in a better cause than Sheriff Poag of Tate County, Mississippi, who was shot down by a lynching mob while doing his duty in protecting a negro criminal. The prisoner had been tried and convicted of a particularly revolting murder, but the Supreme Court, acting on a technicality, had ordered a new trial. Therefore a mob concluded to take the law into its own hands. So far the story is familiar. But the sheriff was not content with warning the mob. He fired upon it, and was himself killed by a bullet of one of the would-be lynchers. Strange to say, the negro in the jail was left unmolested, and the mob slunk away. But the outrage has aroused public sentiment in a way that the mere lynching of the criminal could not have done. Rewards have been offered for the arrest of the mob leaders. As the Chattanooga *Times* says, in commenting on the case, "the beginning of the end of mob violence would unquestionably date from the hanging of the ringleaders of this cowardly mob." Gov. Vardaman has thrown himself with energy and determination into the apprehension of the murderers. In fact, since he took office he has uniformly stood strongly against the lynching spirit.

Writing on the question of negro education in the South in the Boston *Transcript*, Professor Hart has touched upon certain striking inconsistencies in the attitude of the whites. As is well known, white teachers of the negro are social outcasts throughout the South as a whole, particularly if they are of Northern antecedents. In one case known to us, the immediate neighbors of a splendid school in Alabama, run by New England women of the highest type, never set foot within its walls until a distinguished party of Northern and Southern educators visited it. As Professor Hart says, the relentlessness of this ostracism is hard for a Northerner to believe. "An educated and cultivated

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family," he reports, "lives in a Southern city, superior intellectually and morally to most of the community about it, yet no friendly foot ever crosses its threshold." Even in the border States, the feeling is so strong that the daughter of a prominent family would be considered as hopelessly disgraced—as if she had committed a social crime—were she to associate herself with as noble an institution as Atlanta University or Hampton. It therefore surprised Professor Hart to discover that in Charleston the teachers of the colored public schools were white people. Had he gone to Richmond and Lynchburg, he would have found a similar paradoxical state of affairs, and, in the case of a high school, he would have been told that the reason why the teachers were white was because the salaries were too large to pay to negroes. Little inconsistencies like these, however, never affect the believers in the theory of racial aloofness.

Mr. Kenyon Cox discusses in the *Evening Post* the proposed affiliation of the National Academy with Columbia University. He shows very clearly that nothing like absorption of the Academy is contemplated, and gives very welcome assurances that only its art schools are to be located on Morningside Heights. We learn also on sure authority that even the art schools are to retain their autonomy. The plan, in short, comes down to a common building, which the Academy provides, capacious enough to house both its own schools and the Columbia courses in the fine arts. For this building Columbia will give the site under conditions safeguarding both parties in case the partnership should ever be dissolved. The visible result of the alliance, then, will be a great building, in which, side by side with the Academy classes in drawing, painting, sculpture, and engraving, will be conducted the University lectures in æsthetics and art history. Evidently the Academy finds its account in the arrangement. It disposes of the vexatious problems of its schools, for which it gets a free site, and is enabled to approach, without ulterior embarrassments, the task of securing a capacious and centrally located exhibition building. Moreover, it is probable that on the one hand the Academy may be able to draw upon Columbia for lectureships on anatomy and on the more geometrical and chemical aspects of the painter's craft, while University instruction in the history and theory of art may gain something of actuality by the presence of those who handle clay and pigments. As the distinguished artists who thanked President Butler for his overture remarked justly, "somewhere the arts intersect."

Professor Francke of Harvard, to whose ardent efforts the Germanic Museum in Cambridge largely owes its existence, hopes for a brilliant future for this institution. He would have it become not merely a storehouse of Germany's artistic past, but a strong tie between the Germany and America of to-day. In connection with the exchange of professors between Harvard and Berlin, he suggests that the Museum should be sufficiently endowed to enable it to invite German savants to give yearly a course of lectures on German history, literature, and art. From Cambridge they could travel westward and repeat their lectures in other university centres, and thus instil a knowledge of German aims and ideals, which are often sadly ignored or misunderstood despite our many German-American citizens and the numerous American students who attend German universities. If only as an offset to Jingo animosity towards Germany, the scheme commends itself quite aside from the merit of the plan. It is gratifying to note, in passing, that for the last few months American attacks on Germany have ceased altogether. Now, it is Japan which keeps us awake o' nights by her perfectly open efforts to oust us from the Philippines—would she might!—or to steal Hawaii, or close the door on us in Asia. Germany for the moment is allowed to rest in peace.

In diplomacy as in life no man is indispensable, but M. Delcassé is at least the pivotal figure in Europe to-day, and the news that he meant to resign could but cause a certain apprehensiveness. The weight of his influence has always been cast on the side of peace. International arbitration has found in him a steadfast friend. Such notable treaties as the Siamese and the Anglo-French conventions testify not only to the good will and straightforwardness which he has put into the negotiations, but also to the extraordinary ability with which he has represented the interests of his nation. Again, the *entente* between France and Italy is largely of his making—a step which by perfectly legitimate methods has done much to offset the undue preponderance of Germany in Europe. In recent days the irritating activities of the Kaiser in Morocco have put M. Delcassé's equanimity to the supreme test, and his quiet but decisive reiteration of the Moroccan policy openly adopted by France more than a year ago has made the bluster of the Wilhelmstrasse look not only meddlesome, but foolish. It was said that he resigned because the hotheads of the Chamber wanted him to answer the Germans according to their folly. Happily, he was induced to reconsider and remain at his post.

For the moment, the Liberal ferment in Russia seems to have ceased. The suspension of Witte's peasant committee is taken as a matter of course. The reactionists evidently stake their cause on the event of the impending naval battle. Even the reformists are divided among themselves. Few of the learned bodies and zemstvos which have petitioned for a legislative assembly are likely to concur in the minimum programme of the new Progressive Liberal party. An advisory council elected by the zemstvos is all that M. Shipoff and Prince Trubetskoy propose. These leaders condition their plan upon the extension of the zemstvo system throughout the Empire. Here, at least, the Czar and the Liberals are in accord, for he has recently instituted zemstvo government voluntarily in Eastern Siberia. If the plan for an advisory council falls far short of the hopes of the average reformer, the scheme has much to be said for it. Russia is hardly prepared for genuine parliamentary rule, and a great council might afford a valuable training for future parliamentarians. To change the council at need into a national legislature would be a very simple matter. But the success of such a compromise depends, first, upon the good faith and courage of the Czar, who might, under the sinister influence of the Grand Ducal cabal, be induced to authorize such an assembly without ever consulting or even convening it; and upon the temper of the Liberal proletariat. May Day should tell whether the path of concession and compromise is still open, or whether the leaders of the people, as many symptoms indicate, are committed to the plan of revolution.

The Cretan Parliament meets only at intervals of two years; accordingly, its unanimous vote for the termination of the High Commissionership and for union with Greece has the emphasis of long repressed emotion. As representative of the four treaty Powers, Prince George is bound officially to discourage unionist sentiment; personally it can hardly be a grief to him to see that the anomalous position of the island is irksome to its inhabitants. Among the 303,000 inhabitants enumerated in the census of 1900, Greeks are to Muslims in a ratio of eight to one. The pacification of the island is relatively complete; Greek possession would menace the Mediterranean interests of no Power Even the Sultan would have no sound reason for declining to relinquish his nominal overlordship, since Crete no longer pays tribute, and recent events in Macedonia have made all Greeks in a sense allies of the Porte against the Bulgars. In short, the restoration of Crete to the parent country would involve only a loyal assumption of the Cretan debt. But the signatory powers —Great Britain, France, Italy, and Russia—have set their face against it.

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TERRITORIAL WATERS AND NEUTRALITY.

Recent events are likely to bring international law back to its beginnings in the dispute over *Mare clausum* and *Mare liberum*. Characteristically, the Russians may be cited on both sides of the controversy. They sowed floating and even set fixed mines many leagues from Port Arthur, treating the two broad gulfs as territorial waters of their leasehold on the Liaotung Peninsula; and their fleet has made long sojourns off neutral ports, just beyond the three-mile limit, thus claiming the narrowest interpretation of the limit of national jurisdiction on the high seas. Both actions argue strongly against the three-mile rule which we have inherited from the early part of the eighteenth century.

Bynkershoek's dictum, "Terrae dominium finitur ubi finitur armorum vis," was promptly interpreted to mean the extreme range of a cannon of that time. Evidently, the strictest application of his principle would regulate territorial waters by the range of cannon, and to-day an international conference, recognizing the improvement in ordnance since William and Mary's day, could hardly fail to multiply by three the old limit of a marine league. In the *Alabama* affair the French Foreign Office took this ground, and warned Capt. Semmes seven or eight miles away from the harbor of Cherbourg. In 1894 the Institut de Droit International discussed the matter of the coastal zone, and without dissent agreed that it should be extended. A majority of the delegates favored establishing a limit of six marine miles from low-water mark, in time of peace; with the right on the part of a neutral State to extend it, in time of war, upon due notification, to the longest range of a modern gun. This discussion brought out the essential principle that national jurisdiction over coastal waters and the duties of a neutral by no means coincide geographically. These eminent jurists agreed that in time of war a neutral might, in the interests of peace, control the sea far beyond its ordinary jurisdiction. In other words, a neutral is its own judge of its duty towards the comity of nations, and in performance of such duties must not be bound by the geographical limits of ordinary police power.

Any definition of territorial waters is likely to be inadequate in time of war, for such definitions are not made in view of that eventuality. The three-mile limit, at its origin and to-day, simply expressed the range within which the shipping and revenue regulations of a nation might conveniently apply. It set a check to the growing doctrine of a free sea, and provided a rule-of-thumb application for Grotius's maxim that the law of the land extends over that part of the sea which is clearly appurtenant thereto. Thus *armorum vis* means logically not the stray shot of an enemy, but the range of the arms of the law. In other words, the three-mile rule, a convenient demarcation for the ordinary purposes of common and admiralty law, is always a most arbitrary and defective index under the extraordinary conditions arising in time of war. Indeed, it is very difficult to lay down any principle that shall fix by log and lead the very delicate duties of a neutral. But one or two points are clear: the neutral zone exists primarily for the defence of a nation at peace. Upon it she places a ban in order that her general tranquillity shall not be disturbed, or her shipping and coast endangered by either of the belligerents. Under modern conditions of naval warfare, a fight far beyond present or probable territorial jurisdiction might be dangerous, and a nation should have power to prevent it. Would England permit a fight in Queenstown offing, or the United States at Scotland Light?

But, besides this duty of self-protection, a neutral nation has also that of treating belligerents humanely. Thus, the right of the war vessel of a belligerent to enter a neutral port is wholly analogous to the right of asylum granted to a disabled craft. In either case the principle is clear that only necessary assistance must be rendered, and that the visiting ship or squadron must not abuse the hospitality extended to it either by making warlike preparations or by prolonging a stay which at best is embarrassing to the host. Here the use of nations has fixed the rule that a disabled war vessel may make indispensable repairs in a friendly port, while the stay in all other cases is limited to twenty-four hours. The spirit of the rule is that aid of any sort rendered to a belligerent should be of a temporary and strictly limited kind. If such aid be continued, neutrality is offended, even if the belligerent be neither in port nor outside the bounds of territorial jurisdiction. If, as appears to be the case, the Russian fleet lay weeks off Madagascar and days in Kamranh Bay, with launches and dispatch boats maintaining an uninterrupted supply service with the land, neutrality was sorely stretched, though the anchorage of the fleet were miles outside the conventional bounds. As a matter of fact, even the police power refuses to be bound by the three-mile limit. Many cases are cited in the books on international law. For our purpose, let the patrolling of international yacht races on the high seas suffice.

If the present conception of territorial waters is too narrow for proper exercise of the ordinary police power, and can with difficulty be made to cover the neutral zone in war time, then the three-mile limit appears doubly obsolete and absurd. Nothing can justify the Russians for strewing mines in the Chinese gulfs, yet modern requirements of national defence might, upon proper notification, justify a belligerent in extending its cordon of mines beyond the three-mile limit. Quite as clearly, belligerent fleets seeking neutral ports are to-day on a different basis from the old squadrons of ships of the line. On the side of repairs, the new-style fighting machines are absolutely more helpless; on the side of supply, steam launches, lighters, derricks, and all the improved machinery of translocation, make it possible to do in a few hours what was formerly the work of days. All these considerations call emphatically for an authoritative international utterance on territorial waters and neutrality. One may confidently expect that the approaching conference on neutrality and the law of contraband will agree with Prof. T. E. Holland of Oxford, that the line should be drawn at a considerably greater distance than three miles from shore, and with the eminent jurists who in 1894 decided that the neutral zone in time of war should be much more generously described than the administrative zone in time of peace.

THE GROWTH OF SOCIALISM.

"A growing Socialistic tendency among the American masses" is one of the things on which H. Rider Haggard commented last week before he sailed for England. His observation merely confirms the opinion expressed by other, and perhaps better informed, students of political and social conditions in this country. The late Senator Marcus A. Hanna, who was by no means a sentimentalist, is often quoted as saying, "The next great issue this country will have to meet will be Socialism." Predictions of this kind are hazardous; but no man who has followed public discussion for twenty-five years can deny that Socialistic theories are more freely debated and belief in them more frankly avowed than ever before.

The causes which are luring so many Americans from the old creed of individualism are not far to seek. The socialistic movement in Europe inevitably has its effect here. No protective tariff bars out ideas. Thousands of immigrants, converted to Socialism by the prevailing poverty of the lower classes in the Old World, bring here a faith which we have been wont to regard as exotic and alien. Then, too, every foreign mail bears its freight of newspapers, pamphlets, and books to sustain the propaganda. Municipal ownership, State insurance, workingmen's pensions, minute regulation of the hours of labor, nationalization of railways, telegraphs and telephones—the thousand schemes of paternalism, now find strong and numerous advocates here. The experiments in England, Germany, France, Italy, and Australia are cited for our guidance by the very schoolboys. The argument of people who ignore differ-

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ences in national genius and ideals or in methods of administration, is brief and persuasive: Shall we confess that a republic is more impotent than a monarchy? What Government has done, Government may do.

Our Socialists, indigenous and imported, have, we must admit, been confirmed in their error by the shamelessness with which managers of public-service corporations have debauched the commonwealth. Our bold speculators in street railways and in gas and electric lighting have laid heavy and dirty hands on governors and legislators, mayors and aldermen. So familiar have we become with venality that when a prosecuting officer, like Joseph W. Folk, has the courage and the honesty to bring traffickers in franchises to the bar of justice, he wins instant fame. Yet St. Louis is not peculiarly wicked. In Chicago, Philadelphia, New York, and indeed wherever two or three boodlers are gathered together, the tale is the same. Since municipal ownership would obviously do away with this particular form of corruption, thousands of voters clamor for the change, regardless of the danger of jumping from the frying-pan into the fire.

The insolence and extortion of our railway and lighting companies have also stirred profoundly the popular consciousness. We may endure with comparative equanimity the spectacle of the elected representative of the people selling himself to a piratical corporation, but the most apathetic of us resents having his pockets picked to pay some one else's dividends on watered stock. Human nature being what it is, the gas investigation in this city has made friends by wholesale for the project of municipal gas and electric plants. When a monopoly manufactures gas at from thirty to fifty cents a thousand feet and sells for a dollar, when it meets heavy interest charges on enormous overcapitalization, when it deliberately supplies a product inferior to the stipulated quality, when it juggles with the pressure in order still further to swindle the consumer, no one can be surprised if men in their haste seize the weapon of municipal ownership. Harrison E. Gawtry, William Rockefeller, Anthony N. Brady, Thomas F. Ryan, and the other directors of the Consolidated Gas Company, are the real leaders of the crusade for Socialism — not such frothy demagogues as Eugene V. Debs.

We must reckon into the account also certain recent revelations in high finance. Nobody imagines that stories of rebates to the Standard Oil Company and to the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company have failed to move men toward State control of railways. No one can deny that the disclosures about the Equitable will point many appeals for State insurance. Whatever the perils—so runs the plea—we shall incur nothing worse than this. In brief, our noisy agitators can turn to sleek and solid capitalists who deprecate wild talk about Socialism, and retort with the lines from Sophocles:

"'Tis you that say it, not I. You do the deeds,
And your ungodly deeds find me the words."

Prophecies as to political results are, as we have said, unwise. To form a sound estimate of the strength of the Socialists is impossible. The party cast 97,730 votes in the Presidential election of 1900, and 391,587 in 1904. The Socialists themselves assert, and not without reason, that Mr. Roosevelt's extraordinary personal popularity and the widespread conviction that his own programme is radical, drew the Socialist lightning. Moreover, many who draw the line at Debs or any declared Socialist as President, are ready enough to try local experiments in Socialism. Chicago, for example, has just come out deliberately and overwhelmingly for municipal ownership of street railways. That instance, however, does not prove everything, for the successful candidate for Mayor, Judge E. F. Dunne, was nominally a Democrat, and of course received a considerable party support regardless of local issues. The procedure of Chicago is probably typical. As Socialism gains headway here or there, one of the older parties will seize the occasion to make capital for itself. This is the means by which an independent Socialist organization has been kept down in Europe. In England, no less distinguished a Conservative than Joseph Chamberlain himself has proposed old-age pensions. In this country the Democrats, by adopting an "advanced" platform in 1908, may render the Socialists, as such, a negligible quantity. But radicalism is not, as President Roosevelt has shown us, the exclusive patent of either party. In any event the tendency toward Socialism is a grave fact, a menace to our traditions, which will disturb both the plots of our politicians and the visions of our statesmen.

THE YOSEMITE RECESSION.

When Gov. Pardee of California took in hand a quill plucked from a Yosemite Valley eagle and signed the bill for the recession of that valley and the Mariposa Big Tree Grove to the National Government, he consummated a deed which must have rejoiced all who are interested in the scenic wonder of the West. The creating of the Yosemite National Park by Congress in 1890 established a state of affairs which was bound to bring about deplorable complications. Here was a park, nearly the size of Rhode Island, thirty-six miles in length and forty-eight miles in breadth, belonging to the Federal Government, and in the heart of it the Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Grove, belonging to the State of California—an *imperium in imperio* which resulted in constant friction and trouble, as might have been foreseen. A year ago matters went so far that a fire was permitted to ruin some of the finest trees because both Federal and State officials insisted that it was outside of their respective jurisdictions.

In 1864, when Congress ceded the Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Grove to the State of California, "to be held for public use, resort, and recreation," little was known of the unique marvels of this region. To-day all the world knows about them, as it does about the Yellowstone Park and Niagara Falls; the Valley is visited by tourists from other States and foreign countries in much larger numbers than by Californians, and it is therefore proper that the National Government should have charge of it. For more than a decade complaints have been rife that the State did not take proper care of the Park placed in its trust; the floor of the Valley, a natural flower garden, was allowed to be devastated and disfigured, and in one instance the commissioners proposed action of which Frederick Law Olmsted said that it "would eventually result in an irreparable calamity—a calamity to the civilized world." That was as long ago as 1892, and that matters have not mended is indicated by these remarks made only a few weeks ago by the man whose name is identified more than any other with the Yosemite, Mr. John Muir:

"Any person who doubts that it will be best for the national Government to take charge of the Valley, need only visit the portion of the National Park under Government control, and then compare it with the Valley. The Park will be found blooming with flowers, the trails well kept, and everything done to preserve the natural beauties of the place. On the other hand, the Valley is disordered and unkempt, the trails are overgrown, and not laid out through the finest portions, and the best part of the Valley will be found fenced off and used as a corral for the riding horses of the saddle trains."

The difference in favor of the national part of the Park exists notwithstanding the fact that it is really only a forest reserve, and not a National Park in the sense that the Yellowstone is, for the greatest natural beauties and wonders are in and near the Valley. With this, too, under its jurisdiction Washington would feel called upon to do for it what it has done for the Yellowstone, for which more than half a million dollars have been appropriated within two years, or more than the California Legislature has expended on the Yosemite in forty years. The Sierra Club, whose president, John Muir, and secretary, William E. Colby, were the most valiant champions of the recession bill, estimates that $100,000 a year is needed for the proper care of the Valley in place of the $10,000 or $15,000 provided by the State. It will cost $200,000 to build the new hotel absolutely needed; two summers ago there was such a congestion in

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the accommodations provided for visitors, that the State Commissioners had to notify the transportation companies not to allow any more tourists to enter the Valley.

Two years ago both President Roosevelt and the Governor of California were won over to his side by Mr. John Muir, on the way to the Valley; and since then, in the words of that enthusiast, "the movement was like Yosemite avalanches." The Opposition had for its chief and almost sole organ a yellow journal which professed to have received nearly 65,000 signatures against the recession bill. A demagogic appeal was made to State pride: "Should California be advertised as poverty-stricken, miserly, and incompetent?" The appeal fell flat in face of the fact that the State had not, in four decades, done its duty. The *Examiner* itself had to admit that, "as John Muir loves the Valley, and is neither a grafter nor a windbag, it may be said with certainty that, when he asks for recession, there is a lot that the State should do for the Valley that it has not done."

The remark of a Senator of the Opposition who owns property near the Park, "I don't want soldiers to manage my property," threw light on the situation and emphasized the need of the change. Experience in the Yellowstone Park has shown that military control was needed to enforce the rules regarding trespassing and a hundred other things. Heretofore the Yosemite has been under the management of a board of commissioners who received no salary, met once a year in the Valley, and usually had had no experience in the duties expected of them. In striking contrast with this is the Yellowstone, which the National Government has placed in charge of salaried engineers and army officers, who devote all their time to the Park. Under such management the Yosemite would soon show a changed aspect. There are toll roads to be made free, other roads to be constructed, and various measures to be taken to decrease the time and expense of travel. Of the first importance is the establishment of a system of permanent telephone stations to give proper protection to the forests from fire.

California being largely a winter resort, it is expected that the Government will make the Park accessible all the year round. In the case of the Yellowstone, this cannot be done; it is hospitable only three months a year, whereas in the Yosemite Mr. Muir has found flowers and butterflies in midwinter. His books, the 'Mountains of California' and 'Our National Parks,' should be put in the hands of all our legislators in order that they may appreciate the value of the new trust committed to them, and be moved to care on the highest principles for a region that comprises not only forests which Sir Joseph Hooker and Asa Gray pronounced superior to all others in beauty and grandeur, but peaks, domes, cañons, gardens, and cataracts unique among the world's wonders.

LESSONS OF THE MUSICAL SEASON.

The musical season which is drawing to a close has been one of the most interesting on record—so interesting, indeed, that it is difficult to see what the managers can do to prevent the next one from being an anti-climax. Popular artists like Paderewski, D'Albert, Josef Hofmann, Pachmann, Kreisler, Ysaye, Von Vecsey, never visit this country two years in succession, and it will be impossible to find their equivalents for next winter. There are plenty of others on both sides of the ocean who deserve success, but the trouble with most of them is that the American public stubbornly perseveres in its foolish policy of patronizing only the acknowledged heads of the profession. As long as the piano manufacturers continue to back up the concerts, the minor pianists will have a chance to come before the public and run the gantlet of newspaper criticism; but it is likely that the managers, in view of the future, are beginning to realize that they made a mistake in giving the public too sumptuous a feast.

Of the artists named, all had a prosperous season with the exception of the boy violinist, Franz von Vecsey. Without being exactly a failure, he fell far short of his manager's expectations. In Berlin, Vienna, London, he had drawn larger audiences than such mature artists as Kreisler and Ysaye. Although the reverse was the case here, we are not entitled to boast ourselves superior in taste and less prone to sensationalism in the prodigy line than the Europeans. There is always a lottery element in such things; Kubelik, for instance, was as great a success in America as in Europe, although he was emotionally as immature as Von Vecsey. It is true, however, that there is at present less interest in young prodigies in this country than in London and elsewhere, and this is on the whole a good thing, for there can be no doubt that, in nine cases out of ten, harm—often irreparable—is done by the hothouse method of forcing musical talent. Rubinstein summed up this question accurately when he wrote that "these children generally exhibit astonishing musical talent from a very early age, but there comes a time (with boys from the fifteenth to the twentieth year, with girls from the fourteenth to the seventeenth) when the musical gift weakens or sleeps altogether; and only those who are able to cross this Rubicon will then become real artists. Of such the number is very small." Von Vecsey is reported to have said that he will not return to America till he has a beard, and in this remark there is a useful hint to all exploiters of prodigies.

In the matter of orchestral concerts the lesson has once more been taught that the conductor is more important than his "instrument." Our Philharmonic, although it has its weak points, is one of the best orchestras in the world, yet one need but glance at the figures given in Mr. Krehbiel's history of that organization, and the more recent records, to see that its prosperity was always—in some cases almost startlingly—dependent on its conductor. Two years ago it was deemed necessary to make a radical change by importing half a dozen famous leaders from Europe. The experiment proved so successful that it was repeated, although there were those who declared that only its "sensationalism" had helped it through. The second star-conductor season, however, increased the earnings of each member of the orchestra by $112, and this makes it likely that the present policy will be maintained for years, in spite of efforts to steal the Philharmonic's thunder. The late Theodore Thomas always declared that, to secure satisfactory results, an orchestra should play under only one leader, and this opinion is often advanced by others. If it were correct, it would be impossible ever to hear a first-class operatic performance in Vienna, Berlin, Munich, or the other German capitals, for in all these cities—and in Bayreuth, too—there are always several men who alternate as conductors of the same orchestra. The plain truth is that change in leadership is actually an advantage; it makes the players alert, attentive to their work, eager to do their best. Richard Strauss travels from one city to another conducting the most complicated of his scores, generally after two rehearsals, and the results are usually lauded without reserve. We shall probably hear no more about the bugaboo of multiple conductorship.

The patrons of the Metropolitan Opera House last year taught Mr. Conried the lesson that he could not tempt them to pay $5 a seat for even the most popular operas unless he engaged the most popular singers to appear in them. This year there were indications that he had taken that lesson too much to heart. He secured nearly all the favorite artists, and then found that he could present almost anything he pleased, with or without rehearsal, and be sure of a full house. Is there now, or was there ever, a manager able to resist the temptations offered by such a situation? Mr. Conried saw his opportunity of making the season the most profitable one on record, and he seized it, to the detriment of art. With seven performances a week—one of them in Philadelphia—it was next to impossible to do any rehearsing, and presently there were amusing rumors about prima-donnas (whom Mr. Conried had, on assuming his office,

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threatened with dire punishment if they refused to attend rehearsals) actually begging for, nay, angrily demanding, at least one rehearsal, and not getting it!

There are, to be sure, two sides to this operatic question. In Germany they have plenty of rehearsals, but no singers; here we have the singers and no rehearsals. Which is the better, or the worse? The great Felix Mottl refused to come back to America because he was in despair over the rehearsal question; but now that he has become Generalmusikdirector in Munich, it is reported on good authority that he is in despair over the singer question. The American situation, after all, seems more hopeful than the German. When an opera is repeated several times we generally get excellent results. Lengthening the season and crowding less into each week would be a way of mending matters. Mr. Conried seems to have had the intention of adding a month to next year's season. In this he was confirmed by his disastrous week in "unmusical Boston." But in the cities of the West he had such a brilliant success that he may, after all, change his mind again about confining himself to New York hereafter.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

WASHINGTON, April 24, 1905.

Never before, we believe, since the National Academy of Sciences was created, in 1863, has a spring session brought so meagre a crop of papers as did that of last week. Meeting in Holy Week has not hitherto had such an effect, but this year there were only eight papers. The consolation was that those few were not hurried over as Academy papers usually are, but could be understood and enjoyed in full.

Dr. William Morris Davis, Professor of Geology in Harvard, opened the readings with a deductive sketch of the distinctive effects upon the conformation of the surface of any land-region of several modes of erosion. No other than erosive agencies were considered; and indeed the title of the paper, "The Geographical Cycle in an Arid Clime," would limit the subject still further. But, unfortunately, no lantern had been provided, and the paper probably had to be modified in its presentation. It was very interesting, however, as it was given. In an ordinary climate, the surface of the land would in the ultimate result get washed down to one lowest possible level, technically called the base-level. It usually coincides with the sea-level. Powell showed the importance of recognizing this tendency, since, under normal conditions, there is no other cause that can produce a terrestrial level surface. In arid regions there is no other erosive agency than that of the wind to mould the surface; and wind is far more efficient in such regions than where vegetation arrests it and makes a relative calm close to the ground. Air, of course, does not seek any particular level for itself and its freight, as water does. But its action, as figured by Professor Davis on the blackboard, reminds one of the process of grading a railway-bed by cutting and filling, the depressions being raised with the matter removed from the elevations; so that, like that operation, it does at last leave a level surface—interrupted, it may be, by bare crags of rock. This level surface may perfectly well be below the sea-level, none other than which can usually be the last surface washing. Nevertheless, the wind may strike upon the base of an obstruction in such a manner as to dig holes. It was a matter of regret that a second paper by Professor Davis, which was announced on the printed list, did not get read.

Professor E. L. Nichols of Cornell gave a paper entitled "The Mechanical Equivalent of Light." Since ordinary text-books do not use this phrase, the reader may naturally ask what meaning can be attached to it. The photometric intensity of any one bright line or narrow band in a spectrum will vary in strict proportion to its heat-energy, and the value of the inverse ratio (the energy per brightness) will be the mechanical equivalent of the light of the wave-length of that band. But, for different parts of the visible spectrum, this inverse ratio will vary immeasurably, becoming infinite at the limits of the visible spectrum. We may add that the curve of variation will be appreciably different for different eyes, though they be normal eyes, and not a little for the same eye at different times of day, conditions of health, etc. Perhaps our many expressions about "everything looking blue" to a man in one mood, "bearing a roseate hue" in another mood, and so forth, though they are all now understood as purely metaphorical, may, some of them, have had their origin, before poetry was recognized as such, in nice observations of positive fact. At any rate, the mechanical equivalent of ordinary light capable of dispersion by a prism will have a different value for each illuminant, for each pattern of lamp or burner in which that illuminant is used, for each state of cleanliness of that lamp, for each eye, and for each state of the eye. But the usage of physicists restricts the phrase to the light of a little lamp introduced by Von Hefner-Alteneck burning "pear oil" (often insufficiently designated as "amyl-acetate") and having a flame of a certain fixed height. The photometric intensity of such a flame is called a hefner. It is about eight-ninths of a standard sperm candle-power. An ardent admirer of the marvellous precision of modern physical measurements was all ears and eyes when Prof. Nichols proposed to set down upon the blackboard the three principal determinations of the mechanical equivalent of light by Thomson, Tumlirz, and Ångström, and was evidently preparing himself to be astounded. When he learned that the three values of this important unit which the three eminent physicists had obtained were in the ratios of 19, 13, and 7, respectively, his surprise was of an unexpected kind. Prof. Nichols gave a number of conclusive reasons for holding Ångström's value to be the only trustworthy determination. What had to be done was to remove all the invisible rays from the Hefner flame and measure the heat of the remaining visible rays. If a young student under examination were unexpectedly required to give an instant answer to the question how this should be done, never having heard of the problem, he would infallibly propose to disperse the light into a spectrum, screen off the invisible parts, and concentrate the rest into a calorimeter. But, easy as this would be to say, the difficulties of doing it, with the consequent probable errors, caused Thomson and Tumlirz to prefer to cut off the dark heat by simply passing the light through water. Now it is true that the water would permit the passage of but a very small proportion of the dark heat; but this small proportion might amount to as much as all the heat of the visible part, or more. Ångström therefore chose the difficult method. Some of the visible rays would be absorbed in the spectroscope, no doubt; but, by a photometric comparison with the bare flame, or otherwise, he could readily correct for that; and his value is alone capable of reconciliation with Langley's bolometer results and various other observations.

Prof. Nichols gave the amounts of energy per unit of photometric intensity in the light of a kerosene lamp, of an ordinary gaslight, and of an acetylene light. Such vague descriptions of course preclude precision, but the three amounts of heat were nearly in the ratios of 9, 8, and 7. He compared the different illuminants from other points of view. If we take the "economy" of a mode of illumination to consist in the proportion of the energy that is visible, then the Welsbach burner is a more economical source of light than the electric arc or than the sun itself. If, however, we define the economy as consisting in the ratio of the watts of light-emission to the consumption of fuel-weight, the Welsbach burner stands very low—hardly above a tallow candle—while acetylene distances every artificial competitor. Professor Nichols remarked that the place in the spectrum to the light of which the human eye is most sensitive is also the point of maximum energy in the solar spectrum, and that the curve of sensitiveness of the eye for light of different wave-lengths and the curve of energy in sunlight are substantially identical; which he thought gave logical support to the idea that our faculty of vision, including its seeing the particular mixture of light as colorless which it does so see, has been developed in conformity to the character of sunlight. Fortunately the idea is in no desperate need of logical support.

The well-known therapeutist, Dr. Horatio C. Wood, spoke upon the effect of alcohol on the circulation. The University of Pennsylvania has always taught that alcohol is an active stimulant to the heart. The Johns Hopkins University teaches that it is a sedative to the heart. In order to settle the question, Dr. Wood had instituted a thorough experimental research. The mammalian heart is so susceptible to a thousand influences that no decisive results can be obtained with it. The numerous experiments that have been made upon it are conflicting in the extreme. A heart of more poise is needed—one of those hearts which can be taken out and hung on a peg, and which will still go calmly on for days undisturbed. Cold-blooded reptilian and batrachian hearts were chiefly employed. The first question submitted to experiment was, What is the effect of alcohol upon the arterial pressure? The apparatus employed was described. It was ingeniously contrived to avoid subjecting the blood-vessels to unnatural strains. The experiments so con-

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ducted showed that ordinarily the pressure is not affected at all by alcohol. But arterial pressure, like all pressure, is a reaction between two opposing forces, the strength of the heart's action on the one hand, and the friction in the arteries on the other. Alcohol might increase one of these while correspondingly diminishing the other. In fact, this was found to be the case; for if the constrictive reaction of the arteries was paralyzed by severing their connection with the vasomotor centres, it was found that the heart dilated so much more fully under the influence of alcohol that the increase in the flow through the carotid would amount to from 50 to 75 per cent., although the frequency of the heart-beat was unaffected. The apparatus was so arranged that every five minutes there was an alternation between supplying the heart with blood mixed with alcohol and with pure blood, while the blood that passed through the carotid in each five-minute half-period was collected. The result was invariably as stated. It follows, therefore, that alcohol has a double effect on the circulation, at once stimulating the heart and paralyzing the vasomotor centres. But if this be the case, the flow of blood must be greatly increased, and consequently there should be a dilatation of the smaller vessels which would be shown by that instrument which detects changes in the volume of a limb. Dr. Wood's communication was set forth in so interesting a way, and his delivery was so admirable, that the audience was vivaciously responsive.

Professor Brooks, of the Johns Hopkins University, explained how he had discovered that the principal axis of symmetry of the mature oyster is already marked in the ovarian egg—in the egg before it is yet an egg, and while it is still attached. In that stage of development it has a kind of stem, in reference to which the nucleus of segmentation is symmetrically situated. It also has a shell at that time, but as soon as it is expelled the sea water enters the shell, and the egg slips out; whereupon, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, the egg assumes a spherical form, so that the axis which its stem had marked now appears to be obliterated. However, in one egg out of every hundred a sort of neck remains, which is identifiable, by its peculiar shape and by the situation of the nucleus, with what was at first the stem. The segmentary spindle and all the segmentations are placed symmetrically to the axis of this neck, and the identity of the axis can be traced throughout the animal's life. It is perhaps the only case in which a principal feature of a mature, individual, and unattached animal is so indubitably determinate from the very first.

Mr. Agassiz, the President of the Academy, gave a fascinatingly interesting account of his last *Albatross* expedition. It was intended to explore a part of the Pacific Ocean that had been quite unknown. We will not undertake to state all the lines run over, but the following will show some of the principal passages, though not always in chronological order: From Panama to the Gallapagos (on the equator due south of New Orleans); thence to Callao (12 degrees south); thence to Easter Island, and to Manga Rava Islands (on the tropic of Capricorn westward of Pitcairn, due south of Sitka); back to Acapulco (south by west of the city of Mexico). In this quadrilateral, particularly in its southern part, was found a large district of the ocean characterized by a bottom of manganese nodules, with scarcely anything else. Each haul would fetch up two or three bushels of what looked like potatoes, running up to the size of cannon balls. Such a bottom is found nowhere else, although manganese nodules have been brought up sporadically. Elsewhere the bottom is covered with an ooze largely of decaying animal matter, affording plenty of food, but in this district there is very little food. It is a sea-bottom desert. It lies upon a plateau some 2,000 fathoms deep, between which and the coast is a series of deeps where the soundings were most irregular, some of them reaching 4,000 fathoms. It is curious that the explorers took with them a chart from Kiel, where they found laid down, on the evidence of a few soundings, the "Albatross Plateau," a sort of clairvoyance of what was to be. Mr. Agassiz called it a guess. Over this plateau there are no currents. No food is drifted there, and consequently there is no animal life at the surface. There being no life at the surface, no food can drop to the bottom; and that explains its being a desert. In the Humboldt Current, animal life reaches a depth of 300 fathoms. Where there were currents, plenty of food and animal life was everywhere found. The amount of animal life on the surface of the Humboldt Current is immense, but it diminishes very rapidly as the depth increases, because the temperature falls very rapidly. It would be 72 degrees Fahrenheit at the surface, 52 degrees at 30 fathoms, and at 100 fathoms not much above 40 degrees. Many of the so-called deep-sea animals really do not live below 150 fathoms; but they are brought up in the hauls, and, being much damaged, are supposed to have come from great depths. Mr. Agassiz remarked that this relation between the distribution of animals and the currents throws a certain light upon former geological conditions. It was the eastward currents that stocked and peopled the islands of the Pacific; and there were greater currents in geological ages.

Easter Island was visited, and it was most satisfactory to have an account of that enigmatical place from such an observer. The whole periphery of the island is land-walled 12 to 15 feet high, with numerous platforms for the gigantic images. In the entire absence of wood, these were roughly cut from stone with obsidian tools. The stone must have been soft when first taken from the quarry. They are idols with enormous heads and small bodies, not apparently intended to imitate humanity, and infinitely below the work found in Central America. Hieroglyphics abound which the natives can still read. Originally there must have been a population of four or five thousand inhabitants; at present the natives number fifty or sixty. Every indication is that the work ceased most suddenly, as if in consequence of some unexpected physical or psychical catastrophe. The audience was charmed with the lecture. It recalled Louis Agassiz to those who had heard that famous naturalist and lecturer.

On Wednesday the Academy visited the new Bureau of Standards with the Washington Academy of Sciences. It is as yet impossible to form any critical opinion of this institution; but it has certainly been planned upon a generous scale, with the intention of covering every kind of standardization that there is any important wish in the country to have the Government undertake. The appearance of everything—buildings, instruments, and men—is highly creditable; and there are enough accomplished physicists in the country to make its work an object of national pride.

On Wednesday evening the Academy dined with Mr. Agassiz at the New Willard.

DR. EVANS'S SIXTH YEAR'S CRETAN CAMPAIGN.

KNOSSOS, March 29, 1905.

Had I not already made similar prophecies, I should say, after this week spent in the Museum at Heraclion and on the site of the House of the Double Axe at Knossos, that discoveries are likely to end with the present year's work. But an incident of two days ago gives me pause. While our party was paying its last visit to the excavations, the foreman brought the curved segment of a vase-handle, instantly identified by Dr. Evans as belonging to one of the familiar Knossian funnel-shaped vases made of micaceous schist. The Italians have found the like at and near Phæstos. This handle was decorated with alternating nautiluses and sprays wrought in an extremely clear-cut fashion, suggesting the best palace-style of vase painting. But the newly found fragment came fresh from a trial pit just experimentally sunk at a considerable distance west of the palace. Indeed, it lay on the upward slope of the long hill running parallel to that on which the Knossian palace stands. If followed by others, this small find must indicate the presence of important remains upon that hill. The trial pit was sunk in the line of the deep-level Mycenæan causeway discovered last year below a Roman road built along the same line about 2,000 years afterwards. These two roads run, one under the other, from the theatre building 100 yards northwest of the palace due westward. The problem in hand is to remove the upper Roman road and lay bare the lower Mycenæan one. This will probably have been done by April 14, when a visit is expected from members of the forthcoming Archæological Congress at Athens.

Incidentally there is also in progress the excavation of certain magazines lying deep down and by the side of this Mycenæan causeway. Whether there are older magazines beneath the ones now in hand remains to be seen. Fewer magazines belonging to the oldest Knossian palace have come to light so far than might have been hoped. The Italians at Phæstos have found several such, and it is equally clear on both sides that at least two distinct epochs are distinguishable in buildings and in pottery and the like. Of course, the older and the later palace both antedate 1500 B.C.; and remains both earlier and later than either have been forthcoming, not only from Knossos, Phæstros, and Hagia Triada, but also notably from Gournia, where our countrywoman, Miss Harriet Boyd, has found so much of vital importance for the history of earlier Cretan handicraftsmanship and for the understanding of the mysterious worship of the Cretan snake goddess.

As the years pass by since Dr. Evans's final campaign at Knossos, it becomes more

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and more evident that his vast accumulation of ceramic specimens from various strata in the palace will yield us the means of sketching in outline the history of the potter's craft during the vast period stretching from neolithic times to the dawn of Greek history. The earliest stages have been well studied elsewhere, but only in the collections at Knossos can these stages be linked on by specimens of most gradual transition to the "Mycenæan" period as described by Furtwängler and Loschke. Professor Petrie at Abydos has followed primitive Mediterranean pottery backward into neolithic times, and similar evidence for Knossos lies still in undisturbed neolithic strata below the palace of Minos. But the evolution of artistic pottery between the stone age and the earliest days of Greece is best understood through the Knossian specimens. These prepare the careful observer for the dates supplied partly by Professor Petrie and partly by Dr. Evans, connecting the slow progress of Knossian ceramics with the course of Egyptian history. Dr. Petrie has identified the very earliest Minoan pottery with specimens found at Egyptian Abydos. Dr. Evans has found a similar link, for somewhat more advanced Minoan work, through the affinities of certain Cretan seals of the Sixth Egyptian dynasty. The three styles of Middle Minoan pottery, sometimes called the polychrome styles, have their contact with Egypt in the case of the second polychrome style of Knossos, specimens of which were in much demand for importation into Egypt. Professor Petrie found abundant evidences of this at Gurob. Two Egyptian works, imported when they were new into the Knossian palace, give Mr. Evans further interlacings with Egyptian chronology for his account of the later stratification of pottery on the Knossian site. But we hardly need Egyptian dates to enlighten us. The mere consideration that there is a whole history of art running its course, with periods of revival, perfection, and decay, thrice recurring, in the three Minoan periods, each falling into three successive styles, shows that more than two thousand years are required. Dr. Evans and his assistants have achieved nothing of more permanent and universal value for all students than this classification. Indeed, it must soon be recognized that students of Mediterranean and European anthropology can hardly dispense with the study in Crete of Cretan ceramics; and Egyptologists in particular must spend some energy in mastering the details of Dr. Evans's classification.

Meanwhile the rainiest of rainy seasons threatens the grand staircase leading up from the Hall of the Colonnades to a third story on a level with the pavement of the central court, and at its southeastern angle. Here, as readers of previous Knossian letters in the *Nation* may remember, a stairway, broken by a square landing midway, ascends to an upper story the main features of which have been preserved, including a long corridor at that level. Also, a stone with marks of a similar staircase ascending to a topmost story has been preserved and shored up approximately in its original place. Thus clear proofs of three stories are visible. But everything above the ground level has been kept in place only approximately, and there has always been danger of a fatal collapse. This actually began not very long ago—fortunately, where the damage can be repaired. The flagstones of the upper corridor have in one place collapsed, carrying with them the lowest step of the staircase leading to the topmost story. The ugly hole thus produced was prevented from growing wider and involving more damage only by the insertion of solid columnar props effected an hour or two before our party arrived. Now, it is a relief to say that a competent architect, summoned by telegraph from the British School at Athens, is directing a thorough system of repairs, and there is hope that this danger may be fully provided against before the impending visit of members of the Archæological Congress. The expense, however, will be great, and, considering that only £700 of the £2,000 required has so far been subscribed, the adequate prosecution of this year's work is in serious jeopardy.

As the visitor from Heraclion approaches Knossos, the first view of it is a very great surprise. It appears to be in a valley, because the not inconsiderable intervening depression escapes the eye, and because much higher hills flank it on the west and on the east, while on the south rises a still higher hill, the one where the tombs of Mycenæan date, excavated last year, were found. He who would forget how inconspicuous was Knossos, if approached from the north and the sea, should press on along the fine road which has been pushed southward beyond Knossos and along the valley of the Kairatos, for which the town and palace of Minos were originally named. Viewed from the south, as every one approaching it from the south and the interior inevitably viewed it, Knossos occupies an impregnable position. It commanded the passage from the interior most effectually, and seems from this side to be the natural home of those who should rule the land. In agreement with the requirements of its strategical position, such fortification as Knossos certainly had was at its northern end, toward the sea. But the remains of fortification are by no means extensive, and it certainly appears that Knossos must have trusted for defence in the days of its greatest power not to strong walls, but to command of the sea. In the earliest days, when Knossos first emerged from the condition of a neolithic settlement, its safety from pirates may have been due partly to its distance from the sea (four miles) and partly to its inconspicuous position when approached from the coast.

LOUIS DYER.

FOUCQUET AND FRENCH LETTERS.

PARIS, April 6, 1905.

The Superintendent Foucquet achieved the reputation of a great patron of letters. He counted among his friends Lafontaine, the immortal fabulist; Madame de Sévigné; Mlle. de Scudéry; Pellisson. They all remained faithful to him at the time of his misfortunes, when he incurred the ill-will of Louis XIV. Sainte-Beuve, in his "Causeries du Lundi," which are an inexhaustible source of information, twice analyzed the character of Foucquet, and tried to imagine what would have become of French letters if the Superintendent had remained longer in power.

M. Chatelain has just published a huge octavo volume on 'Nicolas Foucquet, Patron of Letters, Arts, and Sciences,' the result of protracted labor.

"I have long interested myself," he says, "in N. Foucquet and his courtiers. I lived several years among them, and if I did not succeed in liking them, I at least tried to understand them. Every human soul is an enigma, and if the well-marked personality of a man of genius seems sometimes to facilitate the solution of the problem, I did not find this precious help in the present study. But this only made the problem even more captivating in my eyes. The psychology of this singular man; his historical and considerable part in the evolution of letters, science, and art, as well as in the evolution of monarchy; the extraordinary exactitude with which it reflects the spirit and the fashion of his time and the average intelligence of his contemporaries—all excited me to make greater efforts to understand him."

Nicolas Foucquet belonged to the high parliamentary bourgeoisie which bordered on nobility and often mixed with it by buying estates and titles. He pursued his studies at the Collège de Clermont, in Paris, kept by Jesuits. He left college at the age of sixteen, and was presented to Richelieu, who, pleased by his good looks and his intelligence, pledged him not to take orders, but to follow, like his father, a parliamentary life. He at once gave him a commission to make an inventory of the titles of the chancery of Vic, which brought him in relations with a learned German, John Freinsheim. "Foucquet saw all the members of the Parlement fond of rare and precious books, searching for them and glorifying themselves with them. If the president and the councillors of the various chambers set the example, the mere lawyers who had fine libraries were legion." The books of Talon, De Thou, De Mesmes are well known to all bibliophiles, and so are those of Foucquet, with the curious emblems which appear on his bindings, and which were added at the time of his prosperity.

At the age of twenty-one Foucquet was *maître des requêtes*. He remained in Paris till 1642, when he was appointed *Intendant* of the Army of the North. He was, during the years of his début in Paris, a frequenter of the salons of two great ladies, Madame du Plessis Bellièvre and Madame du Plessis Guenegaud. The latter lady was a Jansenist, and it was in her house that were read for the first time some of Pascal's "Provincial Letters." Foucquet was thrown also in the world of the *Précieuses*; he became a lady's poet and wrote sonnets; he became attached to Mlle. de Scudéry, and to Pellisson. Nobody nowadays reads the 'Clélie' of Mlle. de Scudéry, but all the important people of the time found a place in this extraordinary work, under false names. The book was devoured by everybody. Foucquet appears in it as the modern Mæcenas. Mlle. de Scudéry and Pellisson were inseparable; she was Sappho and he was Herminius. Foucquet had a deep admiration for Pellisson, who was a great scholar, a poet, and a philosopher.

Foucquet was at the same time a business man, and his friends were afraid he would become too much absorbed by his financial duties. Pellisson expressed this fear in verse, while Foucquet was at his splendid country house at Vaux.

> "Dans un séjour si beau
> Ne ferait-il rien de nouveau,
> Et n'aurait-il point de fauvette
> Dont il fût un jour l'interprète?"

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This was the answer:

"Plût au ciel; mais en vérité
Mon style est tout déconcerté;
J'ai d'autres soins plus nécessaires,
Je perds mon esprit en affaires.
Je vais, je viens pour mes amis,
Je fais tout ce que j'ai promis
Quand ce ne seraient que sornettes,
Et point de temps pour les fauvettes."

Pellisson became secretary to the Superintendent, and was at the same time his agent in many secret negotiations. He kept Foucquet in relations with the literary world, with Boisrobert, with Scarron, with Tallemant, Maucroix, and Lafontaine. His friends called him the "notary of Parnassus."

Foucquet had risen to the dignity of a statesman; he had great views; he was filled with the traditions of Henri IV. and Richelieu. The patronage which he exercised in the world of literature and of the fine arts seemed to him only a part of his duties. He wished to direct public opinion, he inspired pamphlets and newspapers; he felt an obligation to help the distributors of fame. He had a list made of all the men who, in France or abroad, had in his opinion a right to obtain royal favors. He was anxious to pension all writers of merit. He often made presents with his own money. It was a somewhat wearisome work. The poets specially were incessant in their demands; it was not considered dishonorable in those times to obtain pensions and favors by flattery. "Chapelain and Corneille," says M. Chatelain, "disapproved these practices in theory, but they conformed to them. Boisrobert, Scarron, Colletet regarded them as natural. The men of letters had an excuse: literature was unable to give them their daily bread."

There are many interesting details in the work of M. Chatelain on the relations of the State to the writers. Foucquet was the administrator of the royal finances, and he saw that all the pensions to literary people were paid. Most of the pensions, before the time of his administration, were bestowed on the meanest writers, actors, and musicians. There was nothing left for the real poets. Foucquet resolved to help them personally, and not always out of the royal purse. He did so for Pellisson, for Molière, for Quinault, for Lafontaine, for Corneille. His patronage became broader, less interested, less political, than that extended by Mazarin to the pamphleteers of his time. He became the real precursor of Louis XIV. There is a long chapter on the books which were dedicated to him; the only ones worth noticing are Scarron's 'Roman Comique,' the second part of which was dedicated to Madame Foucquet; a work by Perrault (the famous author of the 'Contes'), entitled 'Dialogue between Love and Friendship'; the 'Mort d'Adonis,' by Lafontaine. This poem was a fragment of the description of Vaux, Foucquet's magnificent château, and was never finished. Lafontaine undertook it rather reluctantly, as he himself says:

"Je n'ai jamais chanté que l'ombrage des bois,
Flore, Echo, les Zéphyrs et leurs molles haleines,
Le vert tapis des près et l'argent des fontaines."

The Château de Vaux witnessed performances, given by Molière, of "Sganarelle" and "L'Étourdi." Molière's troupe played afterwards at Vaux "L'École des Maris" before the Queen of England, Madame and Monsieur. Another festival on the 17th of August (a famous date in Foucquet's life) appears like the final apotheosis of his life. It was honored by the presence of the King, the Queen Mother, Madame, Monsieur, Monsieur le Prince (Condé), the Duke de Longueville, M. de Beaufort, M. de Gulse; the whole court coming from Fontainebleau. The King wished to see everything—the fine paintings of Lebrun, the statues, the tapestries, the gardens, the cascades, the canals. After the repast, was played Molière's "Fâcheux." Lafontaine wrote concerning this representation some verses to his friend Maucroix:

"C'est un ouvrage de Molière.
Cet écrivain par sa manière
Charme à présent toute la cour.
De la façon que son nom court,
Il doit être par-delà Rome.
J'en suis ravi, car c'est mon homme.
Te souvient-il bien qu'autrefois
Nous avons conclu d'une voix
Qu'il allait ramener en France
Le bon goût et l'air de Térence?"

Twenty days had not elapsed after this famous fête when Foucquet was arrested at Nantes (on the 5th of September, 1661). All the details of this drama are known. Colbert had denounced the extravagance of Foucquet, and made the King afraid of his ambition. His fall and his long imprisonment are a chapter of history. M. Chatelain has taken a limited field in the life of Foucquet—his relations with the writers of his time and his influence on French literature. Most of the writers whom he had aided remained faithful to his memory; Lafontaine honored himself by writing his "Élégie aux Nymphes de Vaux." On the whole, M. Chatelain's book, so rich in particulars, can be recommended to all the friends of French literature.

Correspondence.

CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF THE MIDDLE WEST AND SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For a number of years it has been felt by many classical teachers of the Middle West and South that the American Philological Association could not offer them the practical possibility of attendance upon meetings, or the strong sense of community of interest, which was desirable. The Association meets mainly in that part of the country in which the majority of its active members live, namely, the East. This is as right as it is natural. But, on the other hand, the fact that the members who attend come mainly from the East is due to the difficulties of distance—difficulties which work, in precisely the same way, to cause a small attendance of Eastern men when an occasional meeting is held in the West. The meetings began in the East, and it is perfectly intelligible that the attendance upon them should not have shown any preponderance of Western men to bring about a change. The question has therefore often been raised, of late, whether the large and vigorous body of classical teachers of the Middle West and the South should not have an organization of its own. The answer given by the older men, both in the West and in the East, has been that this was the inevitable and the desirable outcome, but that it was best to wait until the urgency of the demand should make immediate success certain.

Early last November Prof. W. G. Manly, of the department of Greek of the University of Missouri, sent out a number of letters of inquiry, asking whether the time for organization had not come. The replies received were very encouraging. Professor Manly, and those whose help he had asked, then formed a provisional committee, representing twenty-two States. This committee sent out invitations to join the projected association, and notice of a meeting to be held in Chicago, on May 5 and 6. Over seven hundred persons have answered Professor Manly, signifying their desire to join the organization. The actual attendance at any given meeting will, of course, be very much smaller, as always in bodies of this kind, but the success of the movement seems assured.

At the coming meeting papers will be read by Messrs. J. J. Schlicher of the Indiana State Normal School, Terra Haute; B. L. D'Ooge of the State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.; F. W. Kelsey and Walter Dennison of the University of Michigan, Arthur Fairbanks of the University of Iowa, J. A. Scott of Northwestern University, Paul Shorey, J. G. Laing, C. D. Buck and W. G. Hale, of the University of Chicago, and Ettore Pais of the University of Naples. The number of papers has purposely been kept moderate, both for other reasons and to allow time for the work of organization.

W. G. Hale.

Chicago, April 22, 1905.

ADMINISTRATIVE ENTITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for April 13, 1905, you speak of the phrase "administrative entity" as "now fully accounted for as of German origin," and you suggest that it "must be simply the translation of *entité administrative*—a Gallic metamorphosis, for diplomatic purposes, of some still more metaphysical Teutonism whose determination we leave to philosophical philologers."

Being neither a metaphysician nor a "philologer," I can throw no light upon the hidden meaning or derivation of the phrase. It may be a "Gallic metamorphosis" of some "metaphysical Teutonism" for aught I know; but I *do* happen to know that Secretary Hay used precisely the same phrase in his circular note to the Powers, during the crisis of the Boxer uprising, on July 3, 1900. (See House Documents, I., Foreign Relations [1900], Fifty-sixth Congress, second session, p. 299.) In that note Mr. Hay announced that it was the policy of the United States to "preserve Chinese territorial and *administrative entity*," etc. But then the German Emperor may have been responsible for this barbarism on that occasion, too. Of this we may, however, be certain: neither the phrase nor the policy which it suggests is altogether new.

A. S. Hershey.

University of Indiana, April 21, 1905.

[We are glad that our surmise has had at once the effect of restoring that jewel of a phrase to its creator, Mr. Hay, and of proving that territorial and administrative entity are not necessarily identical. But even with this gloss further

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elucidation is not superfluous.—Ed. Nation.]

ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Within the past two years, both Appletons' 'Annual Cyclopædia' and 'The International Year Book' of Dodd, Mead & Co. have ceased to be published. The former had a most honorable career of more than forty years; the latter was published only a few years, but it had made a place for itself. Both were valued by all users of reference-books.

Both the Messrs. Appleton and Messrs. Dodd, Mead & Co. have recently brought out revised editions of their general cyclopædias; they expect that these works will put an end to any demand for an annual issue of a cyclopædic character. They disclaim any intention to begin again the publication of their respective annuals.

Is not here an excellent opening for an enterprising publisher? More persons and institutions than ever before in this country are probable purchasers of reference-books of the right sort. Will not some one occupy the field so long and honorably held, and so strangely abandoned?

Yours respectfully,

Frank H. Chase.

Beloit College, Wis., April 21, 1905.

Notes.

A facsimile reprint of 'The Only True Mother Goose' from the Boston edition of 1833 is in the press of the Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., Boston. Dr. E. E. Hale furnishes an introduction.

Mr. Sidney Lee has been employed by the London firm of Methuen to edit a Standard Library of "first-rate texts of the classics of all nations at a very low price"—foreign works sometimes translated, as in the case of the 'Meditations' of Marcus Aurelius, sometimes not, as with the Divine Comedy. The beginning is made with Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall,' in the first of seven double volumes selling at a shilling each—sixpence being the ordinary single-volume price; in paper, but cloth bindings may also be had: witness the 'Meditations' and 'Pilgrim's Progress' on our table. This series cannot fail to attract purchasers of slender means. The typography and paper are adequate. In some cases the complete works of an author will be undertaken, as with Jane Austen, of whose novels we already have 'Sense and Sensibility,' Francis Bacon, of whose English works we have 'The Essays and the New Atlantis,' and Shakspere, volume i. Mr. Lee's editorial function is restricted to an introductory biographical and bibliographical note. There are no portraits or other pictorial embellishments.

The admirable "Cambridge English Classics" from the University Press (New York: Macmillan) proceed with Butler's 'Hudibras,' edited by A. R. Waller. The spurious or pirated issues attending the first appearance of Part I., and other complications, make a choice of this text a matter of caution, and for Part III. there is a considerable choice. What results from Mr. Waller's care is, if not a facsimile, a complete report of the original either in the body of the work or in an appendix.

It is a pity that so captivating a series as the Dent-Putnam "Classiques Français" should not be beyond reproach in the matter of proof-reading, which, the more we read in them, appears discreditably careless. Here, at page 82 of the 'Paul et Virginie,' we meet with "sujet éternal"; at page 98, "aprés." Chateaubriand's 'Atala' was thick with this sort of misprints. Mérimée's ever fresh 'Colomba' is companion to the 'Paul et Virginie.'

A welcome reprint is that, by Messrs. Putnam, of the late Sir Leslie Stephen's group of 'Essays on Freethinking and Plain-Speaking,' now more than thirty years before the public in book form, and for some lesser time out of print. The new issue is much enhanced in value by an excellent portrait of Stephen, and by two estimates of him; one, personal and intimate, by Mr. Bryce; the other, more particularly concerned with Stephen's several writings, by Herbert W. Paul. Together these papers make a capital introduction to the lamented author commemorated.

The present state of Russia furnishes a natural excuse for a reprint of Stepniak's work on 'The Russian Peasantry: Their Agrarian Condition, Social Life, and Religion' (London: Routledge; New York: Dutton). The original appeared as long ago as 1888, an interval, unhappily, not too long to bury the methods of Nihilism defended by the mild-mannered author, yet long enough to effect some changes in the peasant conditions he depicts. These chapters, contributions to the *Times* and the *Fortnightly Review* in the first instance, have an historical value, and still throw light on the great problem of Russian revolution.

Katherine Hooker's 'Wayfarers in Italy' has reached a fourth edition in proof of its wide acceptability. We notice that the little peccadilloes which we pointed out in our review of it two years ago have not gone uncorrected. The Messrs. Scribner are the publishers.

'The Story of the Declaration of Independence' has been prepared by William H. Michael, chief clerk of the Department of State, and printed at the expense of that Department. Only a superficial examination of the book is required to show its worthless character. It is not a history, it is not prepared in the historical spirit, and it is not even a straightforward compilation of known facts. The few important events connected with the signing are repeated no less than three times in twenty pages of text, and are not correctly stated in any of the three versions. To make out a volume, the compiler has prepared paragraph biographies of the signers, and claims to have obtained a complete set of the portraits of the signers, but this is far from true. As no list of sources is given, it is impossible to say how the extraordinary series has been made, but no one familiar with the signers can be deceived by the impudence of the claim to completeness. The biographies are without value or originality, and the only novel illustration in the volume is that giving the present appearance of the original document. The cost of this volume to the Government was $4,500, and the result deserves to be pilloried as an example of the great waste of the public money in printing volumes that can serve no useful purpose.

James Minor Lincoln has printed the 'Papers of Captain Rufus Lincoln' of Wareham in a limited edition. They have some historical value, but required more careful selection. Some of the Diaries record events in which the writer took no part, and were based upon contemporary newspaper accounts; others are true records, and full of the recorder's personality. Of chief interest are the letters of John Hewson and the many excellent reproductions of documents, muster-rolls and company accounts. The editing is carelessly done. The letter on page 101 was written by Galvan, not Galvon, and the poem on page 65 was addressed to John Handfield. Such errors and omissions are numerous.

Such of our readers as are interested in Irish affairs have a treat before them in 'The Seething Pot,' a novel, by George A. Birmingham (London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans). It is by far the most racy book dealing with Ireland, her agitations and agitators that has appeared for some time. The name of the writer is not familiar to us. If he continues in an equally happy strain he has a future before him. All parties are touched off in a good-humored vein—Catholic ecclesiasticism perhaps most heavily, for which reason the book, unless with the liberal-minded, may not in Ireland itself meet the reception it deserves. Light as is the author's touch, he himself must have felt deeply. The stolid iron stand of the constabulary in preventing a meeting where two members of Parliament désire to speak, and which the Castle has proclaimed, is related with a verisimilitude sufficient to bring the blood to the cheeks of a hot Home Ruler. The book deals with the experiences of the son of an exiled Irish Nationalist. Born abroad, he inherits a property in Ireland, and soon finds himself in the "seething pot" of Irish politics. Parnell and other personages are, under different names, thinly veiled. The hero, Sir Gerald Geoghegan, is in the end himself disillusioned: "Would we love Ireland so well as we do if we had not got to love her in spite of her breaking our hearts?"

Prof. Oliver H. Richardson of New Haven has published a 'Syllabus of Continental European History' (Ginn), which discloses the method employed in conducting the "History 1" course at Yale. This book contains a skeleton outline of seventy-eight lectures on the leading historical topics that emerge between the fall of Rome and 1870, and furnishes an adequate set of special bibliographies. Opinion varies a good deal as to whether the didactic or the tutorial element should predominate in a general introductory course, such as most undergraduates are put through during the freshman or sophomore year, but in any case it is desirable that a syllabus similar in scope to Professor Richardson's should be placed in the hands of the class. A good many teachers print pamphlets of their own which are distributed gratuitously or sold by the local bookseller. Professor Richardson has been at some pains to make his outline rather fuller than that which is usually given by the instructor to his junior students. In an introductory course, the range of subjects is almost stereotyped, and the same broad subjects come up for discussion everywhere. Such being the case, a good many lecturers may find it more convenient to prescribe the use

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of Professor Richardson's 'Syllabus' than to prepare their own.

Of the papers in M. Henry Lapauze's 'Mélanges sur l'Art Français' (Paris: Hachette et Cie), those which possess the greatest general interest are the two on Ingres. M. Lepauze, himself a native of Ingres's town of Montauban, adds a local patriotism to a real comprehension of the fine and austere art of his hero, and writes with infectious enthusiasm as well as with critical acumen and literary skill. We know of nothing more likely to evoke an interest in and an understanding of one of the greatest, if one of the least popular, of modern artists. Another sort of interest attaches to the historical notes on "Une Académie Révolutionnaire des Beaux-Arts." There is something comic, at once, and pathetic in these records of a struggle to establish an organization of art on a strictly democratic basis. What is most to the credit of the French artists of that day is that, in the midst of proscriptions and denunciations, they tried to preserve as much as possible of the art of the past, and to guard the public monuments of France from destruction at the hands of the haters of "emblems of royalty." Other papers of more or less interest are those on the Academy of France at Rome, on the pastels of La Tour, and on the work of Jean Carriès.

Few engraving "processes" have yielded such good results for so little money as that which is called "the Rembrandt Photogravure," with its headquarters (or chief printing works) in England. The series of "Great Masters" done in this way, and published in London by Heinemann, was an excellent performance. Admirable reproductions of the finest pictures in the world were issued for what seemed, in comparison with other enterprises of the kind, an extremely small price. Now, the same method is being used for a new series called "The Art Folio," of which Messrs. C. W. Faulkner, London, are the publishers. The price of each number is but a guinea, and each contains four plates much larger than those in the "Great Masters" collection, and, if the two numbers as yet seen can be taken as representative, equal in excellence. Good photographs of the same size would cost much more. The publishers start out by appealing to popular taste in art, and the four prints in the first number are apparently chosen with due deference to what is usually supposed to be the standard of the public. But the second number contains at least two fine things: Holbein's "George Gisze" and the beautiful "Duchess of Devonshire and Baby," by Reynolds.

The great Russian Encyclopædia begun in 1890 and published by the firm of Brockhaus-Efron in St. Petersburg has just been finished. It contains 41 volumes, with about 40,000 double-column octavo pages, some 110,000 articles, and 4,000 charts, plans, and illustrations. Of the three original chief editors, only one has survived to witness the completion of the work. They were assisted by a staff of twelve, and the list of contributors numbers 746 savants. The work was primarily intended to be an imitation of the famous Brockhaus Konversations-Lexicon, and to consist of from 16 to 18 volumes. But it was soon found that, in the absence of special cyclopædias of Russian literature, the scheme must necessarily be made more comprehensive. German critical journals have repeatedly spoken highly of the work as it was going through the press, and the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 51, warmly commends it now that it is concluded. Naturally, its chief excellency consists in its Russian features.

The report of the census of the Philippines, just issued by our Census Bureau, is summarized in the April number of the *National Geographic Magazine* by the editor, Mr. G. H. Grosvenor. It contains many interesting and encouraging facts about the islands, but leaves, we are convinced, a too favorable impression of the condition of the Filipinos. To take a single instance: it is stated that, of the civilized people (practically the whole, there being only 647,740 wild natives out of a total population of nearly seven millions), 43.5 per cent. are returned as workers, as compared with 36.3 per cent. in the United States. These figures are obtained by the inclusion of 29.4 of the women as wage-earners, against 12.8 in this country. If the hosts of American women who aid in farm and garden work and are engaged in village industries were enumerated in our census returns, the figures would tell a very different story. But the optimistic view of the situation reaches its climax when we are assured that it is not too much to expect that, under the present favorable conditions, "the Filipinos will become a numerous and homogeneous English-speaking race, exceeding in intelligence and capacity all other people of the tropics." A remarkable series of 130 pictures admirably illustrate the types of people, their manner of life and industries. Mr. Edward Atkinson contributes what he terms his own egotistigraphy, showing how he was led in his youth to investigate the facts regarding cotton and its manufacture. The ignorance in respect to it and similar subjects which prevailed then, and in a measure still prevails, should be dispelled, he thinks, by the establishment in our schools of courses of instruction in commercial geography, geology and climatology.

The "Life and Writings of Dr. José Rizal" is continued in the January and February numbers of the Madrid review, *Nuestro Tiempo*, by W. E. Retana. These two instalments deal with Rizal's life in Spain, France, and Germany, 1882-1887, and the influence of that life upon him. His studious habits and close thought during his student days in Madrid, whither he went as early as October, 1882, are dwelt upon at length, and his journal kept there during part of the time (1882-1885) is given almost *in toto*. One is struck on perusing the latter by the number of books that Rizal buys, his book expenditures being, in fact, the largest item to be found in his accounts. The books, in many different lines, show a wide range of interests. At Madrid he pursued his studies in various languages—English, French, German, and Arabic—while also applying himself to his chosen field of medicine. His brilliancy as a student appeared rather in his literary and philosophical studies than in that of medicine, where he proved to be not above the average. He made a study of military fortification, while he had already begun his celebrated novel, 'Noli me tangere.' Attaining his degree in philosophy and letters, in June, 1885, he went to Paris that same year, where he studied diseases of the eye (his specialty) with Wecker, and also applied himself to the study of English, French, and German, while at odd moments he continued writing on his novel. At the beginning of 1886 he is at Heidelberg, where he first enters into correspondence with Blumentritt, the eminent Philippine ethnologist. From Heidelberg, he goes to Leipzig, where it is said that he supported himself as a typesetter while pursuing his studies. Thence he goes to Berlin in the beginning of 1887, and meets Virchow and other eminent men. That same year his 'Noli me tangere,' of which Retana gives a brief synopsis (partly in extract), was published in Germany. His love for his native land seems ever to increase, and he is eager for his return. He shows himself self-restrained and moderate, a lover of liberty, but a despiser of revolution. Retana appears to insist too much on Rizal's wish to see the Philippines freed from the Spanish yoke.

Mr. Walter Powell, of Birmingham, discusses in the March *Library Association Record* some "Indexes Wanted," *e. g.*, on the drama, on heraldry, on topographical views and maps, on biographies (Phillips's 'Dictionary of Biographical Reference' brought down to date and extended to cover biographies in periodicals), on portraits (the author seems to be unacquainted with the 'A. L. A. Portrait Index,' now nearing completion), on essays (in spite of the 'A. L. A. Index to General Literature,' which he thinks might need recompiling in England). He proposes coöperation between the Library Association and the American Library Association for the preparation of a comprehensive index or set of indexes. The value of this suggestion is doubtful. The defects of the A. L. A. indexes are due to the inconsistencies inherent in a work produced on the coöperative plan.

—The lectures which Mr. Sidney Lee gave at the Lowell Institute in 1903 have, after revision, been published under the title 'Great Englishmen of the Seventeenth Century' (Scribners). More, Sidney, Ralegh, Spenser, Bacon, and Shakspere are the separate stars in this constellation, and, save for an opening essay on "The Spirit of the Sixteenth Century," Mr. Lee keeps strictly to their lives and works. Not improbably the author may find it tiresome to have his name linked always with the Dictionary of National Biography, but one's natural instinct is to compare any lectures which he may deliver on biographical subjects with the articles he has contributed to the great work itself. Such an examination brings out the fact that the exigencies of public speaking have not forced the scholar to disappear in the vulgarizer. When one adopts the biographical methods which Leslie Stephen employed with such conspicuous success, it becomes possible to interest a popular audience in the career of any great man. In other words, the element of discussion, criticism and explanation assumes such large dimensions that the minutiæ of scholarship need not be paraded, while the speaker or writer whose grasp of details is perfect cannot fail to disclose this fact in a hundred ways. Mr. Lee is deeply impressed by the ethical paradoxes of the Renaissance, and finds them illustrated in the careers of all the men with whom he deals. More's defence of intellectual freedom in the 'Utopia' offers a sharp contrast to his martyrdom on be-

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half of authority; the altruistic tone of Ralegh's 'History' is belied by the author's love of gold; Bacon's devotion to lofty intellectual ideals did not save him from becoming the meanest of mankind. Even Sidney, Spenser and Shakspere did not escape from the spell of influences which break in on the unity of a career. "The poets, Sidney and Spenser, who preached with every appearance of conviction the fine doctrine that the poet's crown is alone worth the poet's winning, strained their nerves until they broke in death in pursuit of such will-o'-the-wisps as political or military fame. Shakspere, with narrow personal experiences of life, and with worldly ambition of commonplace calibre, mastered the whole scale of human aspiration, and announced his message in language which no other mortal has yet approached in insight or harmony." The spectacle of lofty genius touched alike by the good and evil of the Renaissance has furnished Mr. Lee with his real theme, nor are his lectures unworthy of such a noble subject.

—Edward P. Cheney's 'Short History of England' (Ginn & Co.) is a small volume of almost seven hundred pages, designed for the use of students and teachers. The history is brought down to the present time, and in this respect is supplementary to Green's. A compendium of this sort can be tested only by actual use; but apparently this one is better in the earlier than the later portions. The last two hundred and fifty years are covered in two hundred pages, and these give us little more than an outline. The author seems to be of the opinion of those who hold that the study of the early political and ecclesiastical organization of a nation throws great light on later changes. But, to our mind, in history, illumination is rather thrown backward than forward, and we could have spared a good deal of the early part of the book for the sake of a more thorough treatment of the modern period. Condensation and perhaps haste here lead to what is tantamount to obscurity. A page is given (sec. 531) to American and English ideas of representation at the time of the Revolution; but, except that they were opposed to one another, we cannot make out exactly why they should have induced a long and bloody war. A good deal of it looks as if the author thought the colonists' view was that they were entitled to elect members to the House of Commons. Trevelyan, one of the authorities referred to by Mr. Cheney, makes the matter plain enough. In the account (p. 674) of the causes of the Boer war, the author, referring to the modifications introduced into the relations between the South African Republic and Great Britain in 1884, instead of telling us what they were, merely says: "They do not seem to have been generally understood." This is true enough, but the business of the historian is to explain the nature of misunderstandings which lead to great wars. The book, however, must be regarded as a compendium, rather than as an original inquiry, and, as such, it will be found useful. It is provided with many illustrations and a number of maps.

—In connection with the Whistler Memorial Exhibition in London, there has been published a little book that deserves to be widely known, and that probably one day will be in great demand among collectors. 'In Memoriam: James McNeill Whistler,' it is called, and it consists of the speech delivered by Prof. Walter Raleigh at the dinner held on the occasion of the opening of the exhibition. Of the eloquence and beauty of the speech as delivered, every one who heard it was loud in praise. Now that it appears in print, it will be praised with scarcely less warmth. That Professor Raleigh has been able to make his just estimate, comes, it is clear, from careful and intelligent study of Whistler not only as artist, but as writer. Whoever is familiar with the 'Gentle Art of Making Enemies' will recognize the inspiration—and at times more than the inspiration; for it is amusing to find how, on all sides, Professor Raleigh is being given credit for the saying that Whistler first taught people to look *at* and not *through* a picture, when these were Whistler's own words, years ago, in the 'Ten O'Clock,' the lecture to which so many went to laugh and stayed to applaud. Another interest attaching to the speech is that Professor Raleigh came to the dinner as the representative of Glasgow University, which showed Whistler the recognition denied to him at Oxford and Cambridge and bestowed upon him the degree of LL.D. It was the last honor he received in this life, and it was one he appreciated very deeply. The little book is got up in the now well-known manner of the Whistler catalogues and pamphlets. It has been printed at the Ballantyne Press and published by Mr. Heinemann for the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers.

—For the past twenty-five years there has been lying among the antiquities in the Pump Room at Bath a little lead tablet with a few lines of writing scratched upon each side of it. Nobody hitherto has succeeded in making anything out of this writing except that it is in a wretched cursive hand; even the language seemed open to doubt. But now comes Bodley's librarian, Mr. E. W. B. Nicholson, with a little pamphlet called 'Vinisius to Nigra' (H. Frowde), in which he endeavors to show that the tablet is nothing less than a Latin letter written in the fourth century by a Christian man in Britain to another man's wife (also a Christian), residing at Bath. We hasten to add that, in spite of these suspicious circumstances, it should not be thought that here is a bit out of some ancient edition of the 'Bath Guide.' To be sure, Vinisius is moved to refer to certain "faults" in Nigra's husband, but he offers nothing warmer than ghostly consolation and a warning against a certain "dog of Arius," one Biliconus, who is coming to drink the waters. Trivial as all this sounds, the tablet would be of importance as one of the very few ancient documents of Christion Britain in Roman times, if there were any way (without going to Bath) of verifying Mr. Nicholson's interpretation, or if his reputation as a palæographer made such verification unnecessary. As it is, we can do no more than mention his general theory, adding that the little which can be deciphered from his collotype facsimile of the tablet suggests that no two scholars are likely to agree in transcribing the original.

—The March number of the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* gives an account of the National Library of Turin after the fire. It would seem that in some respects the calamity which befell the Library was a blessing in disguise. The gifts that have poured in from all parts of the world number more than twice as many volumes as were destroyed. Up to the 4th of December, 1904, 22,880 volumes were received from 811 donors—publishers, authors, libraries, other institutions, and private donors. The British Museum, the Early English Text Society, the Folklore Society, the Royal Belgian Academy presented full sets of their publications, while the Imperial Academy of St. Petersburg sent the catalogue of its numerous publications to select from, and the Government libraries of Prussia put a selection of their duplicates at the disposal of the Turin Library. Several American institutions gave extensively, among them the libraries of New York and Chicago, and Harvard University (though the latter is not among those mentioned in the present article). The city of Siena gave 328 volumes. Five Italian publishing houses gave together 2,400 volumes. Among the individual donors, with one exception the largest gift came from Prof. J. Mayor of Cambridge, who presented not less than 700 volumes, among them several incunabula. But the most munificent donor remains to be mentioned; namely, Baron Alberto Lumbroso, who presented a whole library of about 30,000 volumes, chiefly consisting of a collection of material relating to Napoleon, larger even than that of the Paris National Library.

—While the collections of printed books in the Library have thus materially increased, the loss of manuscripts remains, and probably will remain, irreparable. Of the 4,500 numbers which were contained in a carefully prepared catalogue of this collection—which, by the way, was destroyed along with the treasures it described—only some 1,350 remained to be catalogued in the list which the new director of the Library, Prof. Carlo Frati, published recently in the *Rivista di Filologia e d'Istruzzione Classica*. In connection with this account is found a résumé of an article by Prof. Icilio Guareschi, first printed in last year's volume of the *Memorie* of the Turin Academy, and also reprinted in pamphlet form (Turin: Unione Tipogr. Editrice), in which the writer describes his experiments in restoring the remains of a number of vellum manuscripts. This article should prove to be of interest to libraries that possess manuscript collections, because, as the author of the present notice remarks, library chemistry has a wide field, even when there are no fires, and deserves increased attention.

—The Korea *Review*, in concluding volume iv., in December, 1904, finishes also the History of Korea, by the editor, Prof. Homer B. Hulbert, who, from the prehistoric and legendary period, brings the narrative down to the fall of Liaoyang, in the Russo-Japanese war. The work, well indexed, is to appear in two volumes. In the initial number of volume v. for 1905 are two articles of interest. In the one on Korea and Formosa, it is shown that there is a definite connection between the so-called aborigines of the island and the ancient inhabitants in the southern regions of the peninsula (the northern folk being of wholly different origin and under political

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order of another mould). In physical likeness, in tribal, linguistic and social similarities, close agreement is shown between *insula* and peninsula. The architecture of both was of the pit-like order, with a door in the roof of flat stones. In detail of dress, adornment, tattooing, treatment of the teeth by removal for social demarcation, burial customs, and head-hunting (which in Japan, by direct evolution, became the more civilized game of polo, in which balls took the place of human noddles), further similarities are made manifest.

—On the economic side, advertisement of Korea has been for years handsomely and perseveringly done by the *Review*. A good chapter on iron mining in Kang-won province suggests great possibilities in the future of scientific metallurgy in Korea. There is a description of the new Seul-Fusan railway, which traverses the peninsula from east to west, and which the Japanese have built within a year and during the war. This account is all the more valuable because the writer has twice traversed the Siberian railway, and makes critical comparison. He declares that "nothing too good can be said" of the workmanship on the new road, the masonry, ties, rails, etc. In place of the eight-inch, round-bottomed split trees on the Russian roadbed, which are easily worn into by the rails, the Japanese metal rests on squared Korean timber resembling ash, and the spaces between are ballasted with broken stone. Express trains are not yet run, but the average speed excels that of trains on the Siberian road, and a minimum rate of forty or fifty miles per hour is expected for express trains, when put on. Some of the tunnels are 4,000 yards long. Meanwhile, trains are run over the mountains without switchbacks. At Taiku are vast antiquities of the Shinra (Silla) mediæval kingdom, of old visited by the Arabs and compass-directed Chinese fleets. Fusan, the Japanese port, boasts its three-storied brick hotels and Commercial Museum, and is a modern city. In place of the old one month's river-freighting from Fusan to Taiku, freight trains deliver goods in a day, compelling new readjustments of organized industry.

—Joseph Jefferson, who died on Sunday at Palm Beach, Florida, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, was the last survivor of the first-rate actors who helped to maintain the fading dignity of the American stage during the closing decades of the nineteenth century. No actor of modern times has been the subject of more eloquent or, it must be added, more undiscriminating eulogy, the result of his prestige, his popularity, and his personal charm. As a matter of fact the sum of his achievement was small, and his actual influence upon the stage insignificant. Indeed, the record of his artistic career is singularly barren. He did nothing, beyond setting the example of a blameless life, to elevate the profession to which he owed so much. Notwithstanding his vast influence, he offered no encouragement to modern dramatic authors, and did little or nothing to preserve the old from oblivion. The beginning of his success was the end of his ambition. Having once won the smile of Fortune, he would not put himself in peril of her frown. The public never wearied of his one masterpiece, and he contented himself throughout by far the greater part of his career with the profitable multiplication of replicas. His *Rip Van Winkle* was one of the most perfect realizations of an ideal character even seen upon the stage. The ideal itself, of course, was in many ways unworthy, false, and inconsistent. But artistically the actor gave it the fullest possible interpretation. His impersonation will live in stage history as one of the perfect gems of acting, comparable with the *Falstaff* of Quinn, the *Richard* of the elder Kean, the *Sir Pertinax Macsycophant* of Phelps, the *Iago* of Edwin Booth, or the *Conrad* of Salvini in "La Morte Civile." These differ in kind and value, of course, but resemble each other in perfection of achievement and truth of conception. To few actors has it been given to create more than one masterpiece, and Jefferson never did anything else equal to his *Rip*. His *Caleb Plummer* was quaint, humorous, and pathetic, but not vital. It was inferior to that of Owens. His *Bob Acres* was an exquisite bit of refined fooling, comic from periwig to toe-tip, and charged with all the actor's personal attractiveness, but had little or nothing in common with the character as designed by Sheridan. His *Salem Scudder* was a good specimen of the stage Yankee. His *Pangloss* and his *Ollapod*, like his *Acres*, were in many respects but eccentric manifestations of his own identity. Of his earlier impersonations none are now remembered. Mr. Jefferson received the honorary degree of A. M. from Harvard ten years ago.

ST. FRANCIS AND HIS BIOGRAPHERS.

Sons of Francis. By Anne Macdonell. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902. Pp. vi, 436.

St. Francis of Assisi according to Brother Thomas of Celano: His Descriptions of the Seraphic Father, A. D. 1229-1257. With a Critical Introduction, containing a description of every extant Version. By the Rev. H. G. Rosedale. London: Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1904. Pp. xxxiv., 12, 110, and 174 (the opuscules are paged separately).

Little Brother Francis, the most courteous (*curialissimus*) of holy men, why should he, above other religious reformers, have given rise to strife so bitter and prolonged that few scholars to-day can discuss the records of his life without the blinding heat of partisanship? He had none of Luther's *Heftigkeit;* he was no adept in scorn and scurrility, like St. Jerome and Beza. He was very much of a gentleman, and never forgot that saintly good breeding (*sancta curialitas*) which his biographer notes and which penetrated every word and deed. Yet it had become clear, even before his untimely death, that he had come to send not peace but a sword. Some of his followers took his teaching about Lady Poverty quite literally, and continued for a century and a half to protest bitterly against those who believed that mere poverty could never win the world. Francis resigned his headship of the order several years before his death, and ratified the selection of Brother Elias as leader. Now Elias belonged to what later became the laxer party, who placed their trust in fine churches and solid monasteries, papal privileges, and the general potency of wealth and organization. Elias had a way of making holiness "hum" which saddened Francis, and led him to forebode the evil days which were soon to come upon those who shared and defended his superb possessionlessness. So the issue was early joined, and in a century the *Zelati*, or stricter party, had for various reasons been so completely discredited that they were regarded by the Church as little, if any, better than heretics.

The last twenty years have witnessed a marvellous revival of interest in St. Francis. Protestants vie with Catholics; Jesuits and Dominicans with the Franciscan scholars. Several series of publications and at least one periodical, the *Miscellanea Franciscana*, are devoted exclusively to the early sources for Francis and his order. Five years ago a Leipzig professor gave a course on two of the early Lives of Francis, and in 1902 a Società Internazionale di Studii Francescani was established. There are innumerable monographs and discussions, and long introductions to little books. The controversy over the earliest Lives of St. Francis, like the not altogether dissimilar discussion of the synoptic gospels, "rouses heated passions, calls out abusive and scornful language, provokes withering attacks." That this is not the familiar *odium theologicum* or *scholasticum* one would gladly believe. The writer of 'Sons of Francis,' at any rate, sees something deeper. She says:

"Scholars may think themselves quite detached from the concerns of the present, and, when they wax hot over the religious history of more than six hundred years ago, may congratulate themselves on the intensity of their intellectual interest. But, consciously or not, they are partisans in a struggle of their own hour. It is not the question of the supreme power of the Catholic Church that divides them, any more than it divided the men whom they quarrel over now. The separation lies far deeper, springs from an ideal half concealed, half revealed, as much social as religious, never realized, yet always dimly felt; an ideal that has divided, that will eternally divide, the world till the millennium."

In short, Francis long ago said the last word on the newly rediscovered "simple life"; and his own life and doctrine save those who study him from being completely victimized by palæographic subtleties.

The 'Sons of Francis' forms a natural sequel to the famous life of Francis by Sabatier. It carries on the story of the order, beginning with the immediate disciples of Francis—those who authoritatively and proudly call themselves "Nos qui cum eo fuimus"—Bernard of Quintavalle, Rufino, Giles, Angelo, Masseo, and the celebrated Leo. Brother Elias is very sympathetically exposed. He was surely no Judas, even if he had no business in a brotherhood such as Francis's. Probably, as our author suggests, neither he nor his friend Cardinal Ugolino (later Gregory IX.) "wished that Francis, the child of Heaven, should ever learn their earthly knowledge of men. His innocence, his hopefulness, his high expectations, drew souls as they could not. If only once drawn into the fold by Francis's high hopes for them, the souls might be left to men of the world to deal with!" Perhaps even Francis saw that there was no other among the brothers who would so well govern the rapidly increasing numbers in the order as Brother Elias. Indeed, Celano reports that Francis gave Elias his special blessing, and prayed that God might remember all the toil and labor that he had expended for the order.

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In 1239 Elias was deposed, much to the joy of his many enemies, and eight years later John of Parma, now pretty much forgotten, but a great man in his day, was not unreasonably selected in the hope that he might bring back peace among the distracted Franciscans. "He was a great practical experimenter in the field of religion and morals. Few there have been who have willed and planned on so great a scale to make the City of God a reality on the earth. He failed. And the strugglers of the world might go to school to him to learn how to fail with noble dignity." For toward ten years John held his own pretty well, but at last, accused of heresy, he resigned with dignity, and, before long, Bonaventura was made general of the order. Of him our author has little to say, preferring to turn her attention to Salimbene, the most diverting of Franciscans, whose memoirs are full of very light gossip and very solid information. Angelo Clareno and the 'Chronicle of the Tribulations'—an important account of the sorrows of the *Zelati*, which he helped write, and which has attracted a good deal of study lately—is assigned a chapter, as is Jacopone da Todi. "Dante and the Franciscans" is the closing theme of the volume.

The writer exhibits her complete grasp of the sources in her text, and enumerates them in her appendix of critical notes. Her volume is the peculiarly felicitous outcome of long study and a highly critical mind. It is not in the least amateurish, as books on St. Francis commonly are, nor is it primarily for edification. Probably one should know something of the general situation before he takes up the book, but then he will find it a delight throughout.

Dr. Rosedale has performed a great service by publishing from excellent manuscripts, and in the original Latin, the three accounts of St. Francis by Thomas of Celano. Thomas joined the Franciscans about twelve years before the death of their founder, and must have known him well. He was early sent as a missionary to Germany, but appears to have returned to Assisi from time to time, and was there on the occasion of Francis's death in 1226. In 1229 Thomas had completed a Life of Francis. This he forwarded to Pope Gregory IX. Although commonly known as Celano's "First Life," Dr. Rosedale prefers, for the sake of clearness, to use another title, which the work owes to its close association with the Pope, namely, *Legenda Gregorii*. Nine MSS. of this Life are in existence, and it has already been printed twice from two MSS. which have mysteriously disappeared. The best known of these earlier editions is that of the Bollandists, included in the *Acta Sanctorum* for October. But this is hardly to be had outside very large libraries, and the other edition is even rarer. Consequently, Dr. Rosedale is the first to make this most fundamental of the biographies really accessible. He has collated all nine MSS., making special use of one in the British Museum, which he thinks may perhaps have been written by Celano's own hand.

Celano's prominence in the order, his clear and graceful diction, and, above all, his indubitable nearness to the events, combine to recommend his work above all the other Lives. Yet, in spite of these considerations, the doctors are in disagreement as to its value.

"The one party," writes Dr. Rosedale, "which numbers among its adherents the orthodox Roman writers, is led by the able and polemic editor of the *Miscellanea Franciscana*. It recognizes in Thomas of Celano the true and only exponent of the life of St. Francis. The other party, whose leader seems to be one who to my mind deserves the most respectful consideration of every scholar and student, Professor Paul Sabatier, is tending in its views towards the opinion that in our author we have a man of weak character and one easily led, the tool of the dominant party, and in fact a man who was almost unscrupulous in his writings."

In 1898 Sabatier published the 'Mirror of Perfection,' which he extricated and reconstructed from much other Franciscan matter with which it had become confused. He declared that this was the work of Brother Leo, one of the foremost of Francis's companions, and, relying upon the colophon of a copy made long after the work was written, he assumed that the Life was finished early in the year MCCXXVIII—which would have been still 1227, following our reckoning. Accordingly he issued the 'Mirror of Perfection,' with many pages of introduction and notes, as the *Legenda Antiquissima*, the very oldest and most authentic account of Francis, antedating even that of Celano. But soon another MS. was discovered containing the 'Mirror,' and apparently older than that used by Sabatier. This had the date MCCCXVIII., and Sabatier's lynx-eyed opponents eagerly pointed out how easy it was for the copyist of the MS. first discovered to have made inadvertently an X instead of the third C. Sabatier, we believe, still thinks that he has reasons for maintaining his first position. However this may be, the 'Mirror of Perfection,' which has been beautifully rendered into English by Sebastian Evans, remains a marvellous source for the workings of Francis's spirit in his own life and that of his companions, and must have been written within a score of years after his death.

Under the generalship of Crescentius de Jesu, 1244-1247, the brethren were commanded to bring together "such tokens and miracles of the most blessed Father Francis as might be known or discovered." This order led to the preparation of two lives, which have come down to us—that by the "Three Companions," viz., Brothers Leo, Rufino, and Angelo; and a supplement by Thomas of Celano to his 'First Life.' The 'Legend of the Three Companions'—now to be had in English in the "Temple Classics"—is perhaps the most beautiful little work in the whole range of hagiography. Its style is infinitely simple, entirely different from the carefully considered antitheses of Celano, and yet it borrows from his 'First Life' the accounts of several incidents, and even reproduces now and then Celano's words. This legend seems to break off abruptly when it reaches the last, troubled years of the saint, and suddenly passes over to a brief notice of his death. This circumstance has led Sabatier and others to suspect that certain chapters relating to the period of storm and stress, when Elias had begun to show his hand, have been suppressed. It was while looking for the missing chapters that Sabatier discovered the 'Mirror of Perfection.' Two Franciscan scholars, Marcellino da Civezza and Teofilo Domenichelli, have brought to light an ancient Italian translation of the 'Legend of the Three Companions,' in which the gap is filled in by chapters corresponding with certain of those in the 'Mirror of Perfection.' They hold this to be the complete legend, and published it with an elaborate and learned introduction (Rome, 1899).

As for Celano, students have hitherto been puzzled by seemingly irreconcilable statements in regard to the successive accounts which he wrote after issuing his 'First Life.' Happily, Dr. Rosedale has cleared up all the difficulties, which are too technical to be presented here. Before the death of Crescentius in 1247, Celano prepared a supplement to his 'First Life" quite as voluminous as the original work. He briefly and perfunctorily reviews the career of Francis, and then classifies the incidents of his life under a series of headings—for example, "On Poverty in Clothing," "On Poverty in Bedding," " On Seeking Alms," "On Foolish Gayety," "On Holy Simplicity," etc. This forms the second treatise, *Legenda antiqua*, in Dr. Rosedale's collection, and is a reproduction of the only known MS. now preserved at Assisi. Celano shows by one passage that he was familiar with the work of the Three Companions, written in 1246, and in several cases he reproduces incidents in the 'Mirror of Perfection,' using the same words. This is but one illustration of the puzzling way in which the bits of early Franciscan literature, owing to their episodal character, began to be taken apart and shuffled around until, by the fifteenth century, matters reached such a pass that the veriest Sherlock Holmes among the Franciscan detectives finds his head swimming.

Under John of Parma, the successor of Crescentius, Celano issued a new edition of the *Legenda antiqua*, with some rather slight changes, and added a long account of Francis's miracles, to which he had given scant attention in his earlier writings. Only very recently has a MS. been discovered of this *Tractatus secundus*, which is reproduced as the final treatise in Dr. Rosedale's collection. Its discovery seems to clear up all the confusion which has hitherto existed in regard to the thirteenth-century references to Celano's various lives.

Shortly after Bonaventura was chosen head of the order, he was deputed, in view of the many scattered and sometimes conflicting legends of Francis, to prepare an official Life. When this was completed, the general chapter of the Franciscans held at Paris in 1264 commanded, in virtue of the vow of obedience, that "all legends of St. Francis hitherto made shall be destroyed; and, where they are discovered outside the order, the brethren shall endeavor to do away with them, since that legend which has been made by the General [Bonaventura] has been made up of those things which have been diligently proven, and which he had from the mouths of those who were almost continuously with St. Francis and knew all things of a certainty." Thus the whole Franciscan order was set to work to annihilate all the primary sources for the life of St. Francis, and certainly succeeded in creating or enhancing many perplexities for the modern historian. Yet, with Celano's works, the 'Legend of the Three Companions' and the 'Mirror of Perfection,' in spite of some minor mysteries, the ad-

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mirer of the *Poverello* has abundant material for judging him and his teachings, and need not depend upon the prudent compilation of the irenic Bonaventura, nor upon the fascinating but untrustworthy 'Little Flowers,' which were probably brought together a century after Francis's death.

In the preceding explanation of the relation of Dr. Rosedale's publication to the previously available sources, there has been little opportunity to speak of Celano's matter and style. A single and not wholly typical example of the prose of the supposed author of the august hymn "Dies Iræ" must suffice. He thus pictures Francis's character:

"Dulcis in moribus, natura placidus, affabilis in sermone, commodissimus in exortatione, fidelissimus in commisso, providus in consilio, in negotio efficax, gratiosus in omnibus; mente serenus, animo dulcis, spiritu sobrius, contemplatione suspensus, orationi assiduus et in omnibus fervens; constans proposito, virtute stabilis, gratia perseverans, et in omnibus idem. Ad indulgendum velox, ad irascendum tardus, liber ingenio, memoria luculentus, subtilis in disserendo, circumspectus in eligendo, et in omnibus simplex."

MRS. WARD'S LATEST NOVEL.

The Marriage of William Ashe. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Harper & Brothers.

'The Marriage of William Ashe' is an interesting contribution to a series of novels by Mrs. Ward, which might not inappropriately be named "The Stately Homes of England" Series.

"The Stately Homes of England,
How beautiful they stand!
Amidst their tall ancestral trees
O'er all the pleasant land.
The deer across their greensward bound
Through shade and sunny gleam,
And the swan glides past them with the sound
Of some rejoicing stream!"

Thus sang Felicia Hemans, proclaiming with early Victorian simplicity the romantic charm that the visible signs of long descent and power exercise upon the popular imagination. The tuneful poetess would have repelled indignantly visitations of a vulgar curiosity about what went on behind the ancestral trees, though she may well have cherished a secret vision of human beings beautiful and graceful as the deer and swan, passing their days in occupations comparable for innocence with the bounding and gliding of those highly decorative animals.

There are several points of resemblance between Felicia Hemans and Mrs. Ward. Each in her way represents that admirable mixture of romantic sentiment, good sense, independent judgment, and profound respect for national conventions which every Englishgentlewoman is proud to own. Mrs. Hemans wrote verse flowing at about the same level as Mrs. Ward's prose—always respectable, yet barren of inspiration, of high or rare quality. This verse enjoyed in Mrs. Hemans's day such popularity as Mrs. Ward's novels enjoy to-day, and it is still read by many people and respectfully treated by critics, as Mrs. Ward's fiction may easily be fifty years hence. The great difference between these two "gifted" writers is really the difference of the times. In Mrs. Hemans's time the idol-breakers had not fairly got to work, and many institutions and objects, including "stately homes," were still revered by the people. In Mrs. Ward's time nothing is revered by the people; and the "stately homes," having lost all their mystery, would have lost all their interest, were it not for the curiosity of a still excluded mob about what is going on behind the park gates.

The public has settled to the belief that Mrs. Ward can gratify that curiosity; and probably the public is right. She moves with such serenity and authority through great, gilded drawing-rooms, up and down splendid staircases, across those greenswards where the deer used to be so prominent, that it is only reasonable to assume her familiarity with the nobles and great ladies, soldiers and statesmen, who have had the entrée from time immemorial. Our demands may have been unreasonable, for we have often experienced a disappointment in her delineation of such personages. These have seemed to us less spirited, less insistent on having and holding, vastly more proper than they were in the days of their seclusion, as we know them in history and through tattling writers of memoirs and letters. They have impressed us as figures that might have been commemorated in verse by Felicia Hemans, if her imagination had had the audacity to cross the portals.

In 'The Marriage of William Ashe' we meet a few people, not drawn to fit ideals, born and nourished in the humbler homes of England. First among these is Lady Kitty Bristol, the wife of William Ashe. She is an Irish girl with a bad inheritance on both sides—a father without morals and with a touch of madness, and a charming but shady mother. Ashe meets Lady Kitty at one of her mother's parties, where we are told that a sea of black coats overflowed from the drawing-room to the staircase landing, while the sex that doesn't wear coats in the evening was represented only by the hostess and her daughter. Ashe promptly falls in love with Lady Kitty, and that is the beginning of trouble.

The girl, with intelligent, wild eyes looking out from a childish face, was neither mad nor bad, but incurably perverse. She longed for love, and, when love came to her at the right moment, the dawn of life, she played cruel pranks with it, and only failed to kill it because it had passion and patience and loyalty which were never hers. She thirsted for money and pleasure and power, and, having got all these things, she threw them away. For her the thing craved lost its value with possession. The gardens of delight always lay for her beyond the shore she safely trod. She could do wrong both impulsively and deliberately, but she could expiate the wrong only in a momentary fit of self-reproach. Her vision of perfection was dim, yet she had it just enough to wring compassion from the hardest heart. Mrs. Ward has brought out this point with great skill and unfailing sympathy. She has also resisted the temptation towards exaggeration and theatrical effect offered by such a picturesque and intense figure. In the last chapter, when Ashe and his wife come together, the improbability of such an accident disappears in the sense of its appropriateness. Lady Kitty, of course, might have died unforgiven, though deeply repentant and forgiving her enemies; but she might accidentally die otherwise, and so Mrs. Ward has chosen. The whole difficult, delicate episode is beautifully managed; and if the end is not inevitable, it is the best, the perfect.

Ashe is more in Mrs. Ward's usual manner than is Lady Kitty, but he has some original touches and a strong individuality. He married for love, foreseeing clearly embarrassing complications. He bore the consequences admirably, and, we suspect, would have borne the worst—have gone back to his wife broken and abject and crying for him, after her adventure with Geoffrey Cliffe—had his mother, Lady Tranmore, not interfered. She called him to order; she reminded him of things he must stand for, traditions and family honor; she kept him firm in the attitude that the limits of forbearance had been long passed, hardening his heart against its own passion. Ashe's marriage with Kitty is only an episode, but one is made to feel that it fixed a measure for his future, gave him a standard for joy and a standard for sorrow, and that he could never forget.

It is difficult really to see Geoffrey Cliffe, the villain of the piece. At a critical moment, when we were in "the midst of some disagreement with America, a whirlwind was unloosed, and, as it happened, Geoffrey Cliffe was riding it." Lady Kitty would be fatally attracted by a rider of whirlwinds, and, from the moment of meeting with Cliffe, her doom might be regarded as sealed. Mary Lyster's manœuvres to keep two such firebrands apart could but be futile; so, though it is not quite believable, she might have been guilty of the act that brought them irrevocably together. She had ample provocation to ruin a woman who had done her out of two lovers, and perhaps she thought it no harm to hasten the predestined; still, her revenge was shameless, and makes the way found by the lurid actress, Mlle. Ricci, to pay off her score against Cliffe, appear dignified, even noble.

The grand society that Lady Kitty dazzled, offended, and shocked is described with suitable leisure, and each individual's feeling and opinion about her help to vivify her and show her off. The set is, of course, political, always more or less agitated by a foreign question at the point of crisis. For the great social functions where her world congregates, Mrs. Ward throws wide the big front door, so that her public may flock in and satisfy its curiosity. This is the sort of stuff supplied by the page:

"There could be no question that in all external matters Lord Parham was that evening magnificently entertained by the Home Secretary and Lady Kitty Ashe. The *chef* was extravagantly good; the wines, flowers, and service lavish to a degree which made both Ashe and Lady Tranmore secretly uncomfortable. Lady Tranmore in particular detested 'show,' influenced as much by aristocratic instinct as by moral qualms; and there was to her mind a touch of vulgarity in the entertaining at Haggart which might be tolerated in the case of financiers and *nouveaux riches*, while, as connected with her William and his wife, who had no need whatever to bribe society, it was unbecoming and undignified."

Such a passage intimates familiarity with "external matters" pertaining to the aristocracy, and also intimacy with the inward breast. It conveys to the waiting public a bland assurance that the author has "been there," that she "knows it all."

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DYER'S EVOLUTION OF JAPAN.

Dai Nippon: A Study in National Evolution. By Henry Dyer, C.E., M.A., D.Sc. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1904. Pp. xvi., 450.

The scope of this work is shown by the titles of its twenty chapters. They are: Introductory, Fall of Feudalism, The Japanese Mind, Transition, Education, Army and Navy, Means of Communication, Industrial Developments, Art Industries, Commerce, Food Supply, Colonization and Emigration, Constitutional Government, Administration, Finance, International Relations, Foreign Politics, Social Results, The Future, Recent Events. The chapter on Recent Events was appended to explain the main events just before and after the outbreak of war with Russia. The Introductory chapter tells about the author and his work in Japan, the purpose being "to bring my readers within the sphere of my mental environment." He came to Japan (1873) to organize at Tokio the College of Engineering under the Department of Public Works. As principal of that college, he stayed in Japan about ten years, resigning his position "for personal and family reasons."

While the author seeks "to indicate the forces which have been at work in bringing about what is admitted to be the wonder of the latter half of the nineteenth century, namely, the rise of Japan as a member of the comity of nations, and to note some of the chief results," his aim is, not to write a history of modern Japan, but "to supply some materials for such a history by a preliminary study of the dynamics of the subject." He realizes that the task set for himself is complicated and difficult, but he finds the main force in "Bushido," "the sense of honor which cannot bear to be looked down upon as an inferior power" and which creates "the intense loyalty of the people." To this are added "great intellectual ability" and "great power of foresight." But would not "pride" better express the meaning shown by the context for "sense of honor"? Similarly, when we read, "The two predominating features in Japanese national life are therefore patriotism and loyalty, and these to a large extent explain the circumstances which led to the overthrow of the Shogun and the restoration of the Emperor as the centre of executive authority in Japan," troublesome questions arise. Where were this patriotism and loyalty during the two hundred and sixty-five years of the Shogunate? Were they, after all, not a product of "Bushido," or was there a modern "Bushido"? Besides his curious conception of facts, the author thinks that, in estimating the chief forces in national evolution, "the value of opinions expressed must depend, to a very large extent, on the personal experience of the writer"—surely a new historical canon. Beyond this, it were bootless to set opinions against those of the author about the "inner forces which have been most powerful" in making Japan.

But in fact few readers are likely to measure this work by the standard set up by the author. Most readers will value it for the facts and the suggestions it contains. Looked at in this way, two merits lift the work above most of the books on Japan. It is a serious effort by one who has had a good opportunity to know Japan. It brings together a vast deal of information which the general reader seeks, but which must otherwise be sought in a wide variety of sources. Furthermore, most of the abundant statistical data are drawn from official sources, and are brought fully up to the date of publication. On what may be called the concrete aspects of the subject, each chapter gives a good summary view. The chief facts concerning the growth of institutions are woven into an interesting narrative. Untrustworthy in theories, perhaps no other single volume gives so wide and correct a view of the main facts in the several phases of Japanese national life. Since busy people need summary views of large subjects, they will find this one of the best works of the kind on Japan. But pictures suggested by such works are rarely in every way lifelike. The best use of space is, therefore, to point out wherein this book seems likely to mislead the reader.

The trustful Western reader is likely to feel abashed by this book. He is likely to be weighed down with a sense of inferiority—partly of guilt, partly of relative mental and moral weakness, partly of impracticable, if not even low, ideals. On the other hand, he will get only a vague conception of the Japanese. He will find them in most things superior to the men he knows; but the picture will be blurred, and the Japanese will remain incomprehensible. Such impressions result, not merely from statements of the author, but also, and perhaps even more, from actual and implied comparisons and from the general spirit in which he writes. His picture of the moral guilt of European States in their treatment of Oriental peoples is not overdrawn; but the implication that Japanese are wholly incapable of such things is not consistent with the author's reference to Japan's relation to Korea. In respect, not merely of things peculiarly Japanese, but also of institutions taken by Japan from the West, the reader is both told and made to feel that the West has much to learn from Japan. On the other hand, the author gives the impression that Japan got far less from the West than is generally supposed. Thus, he quotes Hearn to the effect that, after all, there was really no revolution in Japan, and that, for the most part, the new things introduced were in neither nature nor effect fundamental. But, if the changes in Japan have not been more numerous and far more radical than those caused by the break-up of feudalism in the West—if they have not affected institutions, customs, and modes of thought—then they are measured by standards not known to ordinary students, and the Japanese themselves, in their new codes, their new system of education, their new political and economic institutions, their daily practices, are vainly chasing illusions.

In his interpretation of Japanese motives and ideals, Mr. Dyer has mainly followed Nitobe, Hearn, Okakura—men of poetic gift—and so his picture lacks nothing in the way of color and proportion. He shows how Shintoism, Buddhism, and Confucianism, by a sort of chemical action, crystallized into "Bushido" and the Japanese spirit—in short, made Japanese motives and ideals. How these ideals as such compare with those of Christianity, he does not say. But he ventures "to affirm that its [Bushido's] principles entered more deeply into the national life of Japan than do those of the religion we profess into Western civilization." What is most misleading is the failure to keep clear the fact that these are ideals. The author himself is thus misled. A seeming recognition of this fact elicits from him a tardy disclaimer that he is "placing the civilization of Old Japan or of China before that of the West." Let the author himself tell how far apart were the ideal and the real. To illustrate the spirit of old Japan, he speaks about *kata-kiuchi* (which he calls "redress," but which means killing an enemy in *revenge*) thus: "Redress did not descend to mere personal revenge, for it was justified only when it was undertaken on behalf of superiors and benefactors. 'One's own wrongs, including injuries done to wife and children, were to be borne and forgiven.'" Later, he says: "I can recall the Satsuma men, with their swaggering gait and sometimes scowling aspect, and one was thankful when one got safely past them in the streets; for there was no saying what an angry samurai might do on the spur of the moment." Again: "There can be no doubt that mere bravado and a domineering spirit led to a reckless use of their swords by the samurai class." Similarly, under the glow of his worded ideals, the author tells us that "the Japanese samurai, and to a very considerable extent all other classes in the country, were fairly well educated"; that "the mind was trained in such a manner that it obtained the capacity to undertake any study to which it was directed." But, later, he says: "It was curious to note how much the people were the slaves of mechanical methods in their mental training. . . . Learning by heart and copying constituted the greater part of the education of the Japanese youth, and the teacher did nothing to stimulate original thought." Then he quotes from the Imperial Rescript on education: "For farmers, artisans, and merchants, and also for women, learning was regarded as beyond their sphere, owing to some misapprehension in the way of school administration. Even among the higher classes much time was spent in the useless occupation of writing poetry and composing maxims, instead of learning what would be for their own benefit or that of the State." We may believe the Rescript as against the author.

For him the test question is: "Have they [the Japanese] been gainers by the changes?" The main trend of his feeling seems to be that Japan lost more than she gained. But, as the changes are in a sense the price paid for her continued existence "as a separate nationality," he reluctantly accepts the hard bargain. Not unnaturally some curious standards had to be set up in order to maintain this mental attitude and also avoid self-contradiction. Thus, economic gains disappear before logic like this: "We have also seen that the prices of nearly all the necessaries of life have risen, although not so much as the wages, so that on the whole the economic condition of the majority of the people has improved. On the other hand, their wants have also developed, and it is doubtful if there is a large proportion who find themselves better off than they would have been under the old conditions." Thus, it seems,

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when wages rise faster than prices, it can only better the condition of people if they do *not* satisfy more wants! Also, the economic condition of the people improves, and yet the people do not find themselves better off than before. Besides, we read: "Sanitary conditions have been bettered, the quality of the food of the majority of the people has improved, and more attention is now being paid to systematic physical development than was the case under feudal conditions, when it was for the most part confined to the samurai class." So, also, with regard to mental, moral, spiritual and social well-being, the standards which show the superiority of the old conditions are a little hard to grasp. These standards are that "intellectual activities and material means are not necessarily the accompaniments of moral and spiritual development"; that "many found pleasure in their work, and they asked for no other blessedness"; that "life was simple, and wants were few"; that "artists were able to work in a leisurely manner and give full play to their genius," while in exchange for their products "they had a sufficient allowance to meet their small personal wants." If these be good standards, the French Revolution was not justified; Europe, like Japan, made a mistake in leaving feudalism; even the Greek and Roman slaves had little cause for complaint! This shows the source of error to be a lack of historical perspective. Like many writers on Japan, the author, as *a mere spectator*, was close enough to Japanese feudalism to be awed by its picturesque outside. He did not look carefully enough at what was within. If "many of the most thoughtful minds in the country look back with something like regret on the old state of affairs," it is like the thrill we have in reading 'Ivanhoe' or looking at the castles on the Rhine. Like us, they would not think of exchanging freedom of conscience, freedom of speech, equality before the law, for more refined art *for the few*, arbitrary government, summary justice and kindred feudal institutions.

Since in Japan *two* universities must serve a population of forty-five millions, it is misleading to read that "the youth of Japan have now opportunities for higher education which will compare very favorably with those of almost any other [*sic*] country in Europe or America." Specimens of logic are, that the quality of Japanese copper causes (?) extensive use of electrical power and development of electrical industries; that low development of commerce in Old Japan was the consequence (?) of the low social position of merchants and speculators. Errors occur. Tea is declared the most important export to America, while its value is less than a fourth that of silk exports to America. The number of *Kotogakko* is stated (incorrectly) as six (p. 84) and (correctly) as eight (p. 88). There are other errors, inconsistencies and curious specimens of logic. But most of the facts concerning Education, Commerce, Transportation, Finance, and such subjects are correct, and it is for information of this kind that the book has its chief and real value. If it had less of the personal element—the first personal pronoun singular appears almost as many times as there are pages—it would please the reader more and be none the less convincing.

The Women of America. By Elizabeth McCracken. New York: The Macmillan Co.

It is a pity that those old Greek satirists who were so profoundly impressed with the uselessness of women (Simonides of Amorgos for instance, or Phocylides, or Hipponax) cannot read Miss McCracken's book. Simonides took ten types of women and compared them each with an animal—the pig, the dog, the ape and so on—all in the most unflattering terms. Only one in ten could he find to admire—the busy housewife, the type of the bee. The rest were greedy, vain, back-biting, dangerous, and tedious companions. Miss McCracken takes thirteen types of American women and finds them all excellent save only one. No superlatives can be found to exhaust their good qualities; America is in their hands, and, being there, is perfectly safe. We are reminded of the remark of a very sensible woman who, last autumn, having listened patiently to several members of the Peace Conference making speeches to an audience of young women, and assuring them, on the honor of American men, that the whole future of America depended on their pleasure, with many variations of the theme, at last, in her turn, rose and said abruptly, "Girls, don't be misled by all that flattery"—a warning that was greeted with prolonged applause.

Miss McCracken set out on a tour to study the American woman, and found her almost without a flaw. She found prairie towns in Nebraska permeated by Shakspere through the influence of the Women's Shakspere Club, a whole community transformed by the presence of a single college woman, libraries everywhere due to women, women everywhere reading the books in them. There is a refreshing absence of statistics and a good deal of platitude in her evidences, but the book, "Germanly speaking," as De Quincey would say, lets itself be read. It is the view of an emotionalist with a fixed idea, but not unobservant. We have said that Miss McCracken found one flaw; there is one reservation in her panegyric—*surgit amari aliquid.* The political women enjoying the franchise in Colorado she sadly admits have sunk to equality with men. It is, indeed, a case of "women, once our superiors and now our equals." Ten years of suffrage in Colorado have, says Miss McCracken, injured the women, whatever may have happened to politics. But politics has not escaped unscathed.

"Public life in Colorado is hysterical. . . . The simplest discussion of the most trivial matter is marked by a breathless tenseness out of all proportion to the occasion. I very soon found in Denver, for example, that it was unwise to put questions to any woman whomsoever regarding any public issue, if another woman at all likely to disagree with her chanced to be present. Instead of hearing one reply, or even two differing replies, I was obliged to listen to a long, excited and chaotic argumentation between the two women pledged to opposite sides of the situation."

"I grant that you may have influence, but *we* have power," said one of these female-suffragists to Miss McCracken. The women philanthropists of Denver, if we may believe the writer, "do it to get votes." "How sweet she is with that baby!" I said to a woman standing near me. "Yes," replied the woman, with a sudden accession of interest and curiosity, "she is. And I hadn't supposed *she* was looking for a new office!" In short, Miss McCracken agrees with the Colorado husband who remarked, "Women don't change politics as much as politics changes women."

There are so many types of American women that it would have been impossible to describe them all in a volume of less than 400 pages. The chapter on "Women in the Professions" says nothing about women who are teaching in colleges or managing them. There is no account of the industrial woman, whether employed in a factory or taking a part in the management of large business concerns. The typewriter is ignored. The domestic servant who makes or mars so many thousand lives is left out of range. In fact, the book has far too wide a title; it merely touches the fringe of the skirts of the great, complex, bewildering, many-sided American woman whom Miss McCracken travelled West and East and North and South to discover and verify and describe.

Another Hardy Garden Book. By Helena Rutherford Ely. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

There is no good reason why the author should not give us a second book on the Hardy Garden, the first was so good. Moreover, she has had in the case of this, as of the first, the help of Professor Chandler in providing excellent illustrative photographs. Some of the recent books on gardening read much like expanded catalogues of nurserymen and seedsmen, the element of inflation consisting largely of that kind of experience the recital of which lightens the daily journey of the suburbanite—or else exasperates him beyond reasonable control. A friend of ours, whose train to and from the city carried the usual number of amateur gardeners with precocious vegetables and early fruits, was wont to obtain from his seed merchant the very *latest* and, so to say, *slowest* varieties of everything. His late sweet corn just escaped the first frosts and afforded him a topic of conversation when his rival passengers had to confess that their summer was past and their harvest was ended.

The author of this work places before us her quiet statements in an unobtrusive and instructive manner, and, here and there, gives touches to her sketch which make the book more than usually readable. She insists with some show of reason that a woman's heart in gardening is with her flowers and shrubs, and the raising of vegetables is only a propitiatory offering to the other members of the family. In taking women through her garden, she says, she "has never heard one ask about the vegetable garden, but she cannot recall a single instance of showing the flowers to a man who failed to inquire with a strong note of interest about the vegetable garden." We wish we could quote at length the pleasant account the author gives of the home itself and its surroundings. The following outline sketch will sufficiently indicate that the story of the garden and the home has been written by a sympathetic and keen observer. The mare driven by the author is an animal of great intelligence, and has come to know its daily and its Sunday tasks very perfectly.

"The mare is a creature of superior and somewhat lofty manners, and not only domineers the other horses in the home stable,

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but fairly browbeats those with whom she comes in contact in the church sheds. They, faithful creatures, mow great fields of hay, plough, and draw heavy loads; and the light task of taking their families to church makes Sunday for them a day of rest. My petted animal hears their tales of the hard week's work, and recounts to them her life of ease, telling how her only labor is to take her mistress upon pleasure drives. But last summer her pride met with a downfall and her haughty spirit was brought low. The weather being very warm, I bought her a hat, bound the holes cut for her ears with red, and adorned it further with a gay red *chou*. She wore it proudly for a few days; then came Sunday. Out of the church shed she came that day with a sadly subdued air; seemed to have no spirit; hung her head, and returned home so dejectedly that I feared she might be ill. The next day the united strength of two men could not put on that hat. She had been laughed at and jeered at by her companions in the shed for her frivolity in taking to millinery, so that her pride was broken and she learned the lesson of meekness."

The Law of Foreign Corporations and Taxation of Corporations, both Foreign and Domestic. By Joseph Henry Beale, jr. Boston: William J. Nagel. 1904.

It is safe to say that this book, on which the author has been engaged for years, will be welcomed by the profession for which it has been written. There is, we believe, no other which covers the field explored by Mr. Beale, to the exclusion of other topics, and this fact alone would make the work professionally important. The subject itself, especially in this country, bids fair to occupy bench, bar, and Legislature more and more as time goes on, for this country may, without paradox, be called the home and nursery of foreign corporations. In this country alone of great modern commonwealths, every State jurisdiction is a "foreign" jurisdiction in every other State; and every corporation chartered by one State is a foreign corporation in every other. The complexity of the jurisprudence which this system produces can hardly be exaggerated, and it is made more complicated still by the concurrent existence of still a third (Federal) jurisdiction, with a constitution, laws, and courts of supreme authority in certain limited directions, although, as a rule, this is not the authority from which a corporation derives its franchise. Our foreign corporations, too, being, in the ordinary sense of the word, domestic corporations, Mr. Beale is quite justified in attributing to the law of his subject great practical interest. It is by "foreign" corporations that an enormous part of the business and commerce of the country is carried on. The subject of taxation is naturally involved, especially as the provisions of the Constitution of the United States affect the right to tax. It should be added that the author has devoted considerable space to the statutory provisions of States and Territories, as well as of Great Britain and Canada. "A knowledge of the form of statute on which the decision is based is necessary for an understanding of many important authorities on the law of foreign corporations."

Without going into details, we may call attention to chapter xxx., on Taxation and Interstate Commerce, as specially valuable just now that States are laying about them in every direction for new sources of revenue. The taxation of "franchises" has divided the Supreme Court as effectually as the questions of colonial expansion. A State may tax a foreign corporation, but it may not regulate interstate commerce. After an elaborate review of the cases, Mr. Beale's conclusion is that a tax upon a foreign corporation, to be valid, must fulfil two requirements: first, it must be levied equally upon domestic and foreign corporations; second, "it must in substance be a means of making property within the State bear its share of the burdens of government, or of paying for the grant of special privileges or for special services not connected with interstate commerce. If the tax fails in either of these respects, it is a tax on commerce, and is invalid."

Mediæval Art, from the Peace of the Church to the Eve of the Renaissance, 312-1350. By W. R. Lethaby. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1904. Pp. xviii., 315.

Mr. Lethaby is author of a small volume, published in 1892 and entitled 'Architecture, Mysticism, and Myth,' and another of 1893 entitled 'Leadwork: Old and Ornamental, and for the most part English.' In 1894 he acted with Mr. Harold Swainson, since dead, in producing one of the most valuable monographs we have, 'The Church of Sancta Sophia, Constantinople,' not fully described without citation of its second title, "A Study of Byzantine Building." He has appeared as editor of a valuable and unique set of manuals, "The Arts and Crafts Series of Technical Handbooks," of which three volumes have been reviewed in these columns during the last two years; and now he joins the very well-chosen group of authors who furnish the red-covered volumes of another series of books on Fine Art—that to which belong Gronau's 'Titian' and Holroyd's 'Michelangelo' —with his 'Mediæval Art,' a work of great research and of singular thoroughness.

Two apparent characteristics of Mr. Lethaby are a laudable willingness to take pains, and a marked readiness to adopt positive opinions—to reach final conclusions and avow them. As to the first point, it would not need much study of the book before us to convince the reader that the monuments have been carefully studied and minutely compared, the latest as well as the old standard authorities consulted, the religious and racial influence weighed. As to the second point, it requires some explanation, for we would not give the impression that our author is hasty in his conclusions. He is, we think, one of those students who are quick to see a positive evil, or a positive good, in a race, an epoch, a tendency—quick to find it and bold to announce it. That habit of mind seems to Americans who are taught rather in the Continental schools than by British example, a peculiarly national one. We expect the Englishman to believe in an unhesitating way certain doctrines about mediæval and other literature, scholarship, philosophy, and fine art. Thus, we find a continued acceptance of views announced forty years ago by James Fergusson, a pragmatical and self-satisfied writer having little real insight into architectural conditions; and in new English books and periodicals we meet with the reiteration of doctrines embodying conditions and beliefs announced half a century ago, in the days of the Gothic Revival, of the Pre-Raphaelite movement, of the writings of William Rossetti and Burges, Morris and Palgrave, Pugin and Lord Lindsay. In short, American students of art matters are rather apt to find the English writers doctrinaires.

Now there is, as one might expect, a certain mysticism combined with this tendency to firm conviction. By "mysticism" we mean the tendency to find in the work of art certain thoughts or utterances which are not visible to the bodily eye. "Wherever, in Italy, we see a school of architecture in course of formation, we shall find that it has its roots in a fresh Byzantine impulse" (p. 91); the bronze font at Liège is "the most remarkable work of art, in an historical sense, of any known to me" (p. 216); Ruskin, "who, at least, was a supreme judge of beauty" (p. 92); "the principle [of Gothic design] was exactly that of natural growth" (p. 169); "one feels that this dazzling mixture of blue and ruby was made use of by a deeper instinct than taste. Such windows seem to fulfil an active part in cathedral ritual—an incense of color" (p. 180)—these quotations show, not unfairly, the tone of conviction and, as it were, illumination in which this treatise is composed. We may add the curiously hasty assumption that the circle of black and white inlay with the sun and zodiacal signs in the pavement of the Florentine Baptistery is studied from a stained-glass rose window (p. 102). It is not merely that a resemblance is pointed out, but that inferences as to date are drawn from it.

The book is divided into twelve chapters, of which the first deals with the age of Constantine. The word of the title, "Peace of the Church," refers, as it seems, to the declaration of Constantine and his colleague, Licinius, that Christianity should be tolerated in the Empire. Four chapters following this treat of the Romanesque and Byzantine—that is, the Western and Eastern—round-arched styles, which followed that of classical Rome. Then comes chapter vi., which deals with the peculiar characteristics of the later Middle Ages, not in architecture alone, but in art conceptions generally, and the reasons for the rapid spread of Gothic architecture, when fairly developed. This chapter introduces the treatment of Gothic art, which fills the second half of the volume. The discussion of it stops with the fourteenth century, and is, in so far, one more disappointment. When shall we see a book that will give its proper place to fifteenth-century art? Let it be called Early Renaissance, as French writers are often inclined to name it, or Developed Gothic, or simply the Flamboyant style, it deserves analysis and criticism as well as the art of any *Décadence* that has ever been, and there is always much beautiful work in the times of *Décadence*.

There are 66 full-page, half-tone prints and 125 text cuts, some of which show, we think, Mr. Lethaby's own handiwork. His illustrations in firm line are recognizable here to those who have studied the cuts in the 'Sancta Sophia.' His selection of material indicates that large knowledge of the monuments and the authorities to which allusion has been made. If any bad tendency may be thought to exist in the enthusiasm, the ready conviction, the inspired tone of the book, the good tendency is at least as noticeable. Where else are such hearty words of praise of the noblest works

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of mediæval men? Nowhere, surely, have the Pisan group of cathedral buildings, or the apse of Beauvais, or the cathedral at Laon, received more sympathetic and affectionate words of praise.

Inner Jerusalem. By A. Goodrich-Freer. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1904. Pp. xv., 388.

The object of Miss Freer's book is to describe Jerusalem as it is to-day. She appears to have visited the country for the special purpose of writing a book, which differs, nevertheless, from that of the ordinary traveller in that she spent two years at Jerusalem investigating and studying. She tried to enter into relations with all the various creeds and communities in the Holy City, so as to absorb, if possible, their point of view, and she seems to have written her chapters about some, at least, of these different nationalities during or immediately after her period of special affiliation with them. As, furthermore, she wrote with the intention of publishing her accounts of them separately in periodicals (in point of fact only one chapter was so published), the effect produced is somewhat as though a representative of each nationality had written a chapter about that nationality. We see its virtues and few of its faults, and consider it largely for itself, without regard to its relations to the others. The style, however, is the same throughout—amusing and light, without being irreverent.

Now and then Miss Freer makes use of historical and learned material, as in the chapter on the history of the Franciscans. In general she avoids archæological and historical disquisitions and discussions, not, as she says, because she is not interested in those topics, but because others have treated them or can treat them better. Her object is to present a picture of the Jerusalem of to-day, its inhabitants, its social life, its customs, and its religious practices.

She is in general tolerant and kindly toward Jews, Roman Catholics, Greeks, Abyssinians, Armenians, Moslems, the peculiar American colony, to the care of which has been entrusted for some years the public-school system of Moslem Jerusalem—in fact, toward every one except her own compatriots, the English; but for them, and especially for the English missionaries, she has hard and even unjust words and judgments. As a result of this attitude of easy tolerance there is generally an apparent lack of strong conviction or deep feeling, but once she is roused to burning indignation, namely, in the chapter, "Martyrdom in Jerusalem," where she describes the disgraceful disturbances at the Holy Sepulchre three years since, when the Greek monks endeavored to take possession by force of the outside flight of steps, which it is the privilege of the Latin Franciscan monks to sweep. Five Italian Franciscans, two Germans, one Frenchman, one Spaniard, one Hollander, two Russians, three Syrians, and one Englishman were more or less seriously injured by stones thrown upon them from above, or wounded with clubs and daggers in the hands of the Greek monks. This fracas attained international importance, because, inasmuch as France, through her latter-day relations to Russia, failed to champion, as of yore, the cause of the Latins in Palestine, the German, Italian, and Spanish Governments interfered and took charge of the cases of their respective subjects. It may be added that no real punishment was inflicted upon the offending monks, and that the Greek community in general viewed this violent onslaught upon the Latins with favor. Such is the bitter rivalry for possession of the sacred sites in Palestine, and so much has the religion of sacred relics, rites, and sites superseded the religion of life! In her account of this fracas, Miss Freer has made use of a manuscript narrative written by one of the Franciscans of the Convent of St. Salvador.

As a woman, Miss Freer enjoyed certain special advantages for the study of the domestic life of the Moslems, and the description of a Moslem wedding at which she assisted, even to taking part in attiring the bride, is peculiarly interesting.

Despite her lack of familiarity with the Arabic language, she found means of communication which were, on the whole, satisfactory for her purpose. Her transliteration of Arabic words is somewhat erratic. As she herself says, it reminds one of the elder Weller's account of the spelling of the name of that illustrious family. For all practical purposes, however, it represents the sounds with sufficient accuracy. But by what perverse ingenuity was Miss Freer led to revive the obsolete *scirocco*, which has no justification either in sound or in etymology?

Our author finds some amusement in the American method of choosing consuls, and the lack of dignity and form characteristic of American consular representation. Although American subjects (almost exclusively Jews, be it said), many of whom cannot speak English and very many of whom doubtless obtained their naturalization papers by fraud, are very numerous, America alone among the Powers represented in Jerusalem has no consular residence. A good word is spoken for the curious "American Colony," commonly called Spaffordites, of dubious repute and yet abounding in good works, educational, benevolent, and industrial. While commending the work of the American "School of Archæology, opened in 1900, which receives, irrespective of religion, nationality, or sex, all students who are graduates of a university of recognized standing," Miss Freer remarks that "it has no local habitation and only one professor, annually renewed, and, however learned, as new as are his pupils to the Holy Land" (p. 4). Unfortunately, this is likely to be the case until increased interest shall enable the directors of this school to provide, as at the similar schools in Athens and Rome, a resident director. The German Archæological School, which has a resident director, is mentioned in terms of unqualified approval, as is also the admirable archæological and Biblical work done by the Dominicans at St. Étienne.

While unhampered by prejudices which prevent intimate social relations with the American Colony, with Latin and Greek monks, with cultivated and intelligent Jews and native Moslems, as are her English compatriots in Jerusalem, or so Miss Freer claims, she was so far limited by social restrictions that all she saw of Jerusalem in the case of each nationality appears to have been what may be called its upper section. The ignorance and need, the curious superstitions and religious vagaries, the vice, the crime, the misery, do not appear in her pages, or at least are merely referred to. The book gives a pleasant and entertaining and, in spite of its limitations, probably the best available picture of actual living conditions in Jerusalem at the present day. It is well got up and satisfactorily illustrated.

Modern Advertising. By Ernest Elmo Calkins and Ralph Holden. (Appletons' Business Series.) D. Appleton & Co. 1905.

The series in which this book is published appears to have been designed for those who wish to advertise their own businesses. The contents of 'Modern Advertising' imply that it is more particularly addressed to business men disposed to employ an advertising agent not only to deal with mediums, but to plan their campaigns or coöperate with themselves in such planning. Assuming this to be its object, we can say it probably serves its purpose. It must accordingly exhibit the art as it is practised by agents and accepted from them; not strictly the art of advertising, but of joint advertising and sales-management. Not unnaturally it commends such performances as "Uneeda Biscuit," "The Smile that Won't Come off," "Sunny Jim," "The Road of Anthracite," etc.; and such a periodical as the *Ladies' Home Journal* as "the highest type of an advertising medium, well edited, with great influence, a circulation reaching well-educated, well-to-do, intelligent, American women"; . . . and "the people who read it are of the better and more discriminating class." It would be out of place for a book like this to lay down the lines on which salesmanship by print may exercise itself to the best advantage; this will be very clear if we add—in the long run.

In the effort to make a book, there is a whole chapter on Definition of Advertising, another on the History of it. The authors appear to think that engravings, "designs," "display," and smartness, are about the whole thing. It does not occur to them that good advertising is, essentially, giving such information as will enable the reader to buy intelligently, with the equivalent in print of a salesman's manner, or something more substantial, to win confidence. They know nothing of candor and fairness, and the exhibition of them in the style of writing and in the typography, as the essentials of proper advertising to extend the area of trade wherever want exists. They know nothing of what the world has lost by the general lapse from such candor and fairness on the part of advertisers. This remark on a certain class of advertisement stands for the book: "The more complete and enthusiastic the description, the larger the returns from the advertising." Enthusiasm and returns!

Strangely enough, there is not a word about book advertising; the class of trade advertising which has least felt the degrading influences of the "expert" advertisement-writer, is not even mentioned—unless Booklover's Library advocacy is book advertising. Medical advertising also is slighted, perhaps for the opposite reason.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adler, Felix. Marriage and Divorce. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Arnold, Birch. Birch Leaves. Detroit: Franklin Press.
Ashe, Sydney W., and J. D. Kelley. Electric Railways. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.50 net.
Baldwin, Charles Sears. How to Write. Macmillan Co.
Bangs, J. Kendrick. The Worsted Man. Harpers. 50 cents.
Barry, William. Ernest Renan. Scribners. $1 net.
Beach, Rex E. Pardners. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Bell, J. J. Mr. Pennycook's Boy. Harper's. $1.25.
Brownell, W. C. French Art. New ed. Scribners.
Carey, Charles. The Van Suyden Sapphires. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Clouston, J. Storer. The Lunatic at Large. F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.
Comstock, Anna Botsford. How to Keep Bees. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Cooper, Edward H. The Twentieth Century Child. John Lane. $1.50.
Corelli, Marie. Free Opinion. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20 net.
Davis, Edward Ziegler. Translations of German Poetry in American Magazines. Philadelphia: American Germanica Press. $1.65 net.
Doyle, Edward. The Haunted Temple. Knickerbocker Press.
Dunbar, Paul Laurence. *Lyrics of Sunshine and Shadow.* Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 net.
Duniway, Abigail Scott. From the West to the West. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Earle, C. W., and others. Garden Colour. Dutton. $6 net.
Edwards, Amelia B. Untrodden Peaks and Unfrequented Valleys. Dutton. $2.50.
Farquhar, Edward. Poems. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.50.
Friend, Emil. Masks. Chicago: Geo. W. Ogilvie & Co.
Fullerton, Edith Loring. How to Make a Vegetable Garden. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2 net.
Gordon, Armistead C. The Gift of the Morning Star. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
Greenidge, A. H. J. A History of Rome. Vol. I. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Hale, Edward Everett, jr. Dramatists of To-day. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50 net.
Hale, William. A Dauntless Viking. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.50.
Hall, R. N. Great Zimbabwe. Dutton. $6 net.
Heath, Dudley. Miniatures. Putnams. $6.75.
Hewlett, Maurice. Fond Adventures. Harpers. $1.50.
Hornung, E. W. Stingaree. Scribners. $1.50.
International French-English and English-French Dictionary. Hinds, Noble & Eldredge. $2.
Jefferies, Richard. The Pageant Summer. Portland, Me.: Thomas B. Mosher.
Jepson, Edgar. Lady Noggs, Peeress. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Johnson, Wolcott. An Old Man's Idyl. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1 net.
"Katharine." Letters from an Oregon Ranch. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Mathews, Shailer. The Messianic Hope in the New Testament. University of Chicago Press. $2.50 net.
Mathews, Frances Aymar. The Marquise's Millions. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1 net.
Meredith, Katharine Mary Cheever. The Wing of Love. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Mitchell, Lucy M. A History of Ancient Sculpture. New ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. $4 net.
My Automobile: A Handy Record. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 net.
Nichols, Francis H. Through Hidden Shensi. Scribners. $2 net.
Noble, Esther Gideon. Macbeth: A Warning against Superstition. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.
Parmele, Mary Platt. A Short Story of Russia. Scribners. $1.
Rice, Wallace. The Athlete's Garland. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Rosadi, Giovanni. The Trial of Jesus. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50 net.
Rose, Mary. The Women of Shakespeare's Family. John Lane. 50 cents net.
Selections from Standard French Authors. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Smith, R. Bosworth. Bird Life and Bird Lore. Dutton. $3 net.
Stephens, Kate. American Thumb-Prints. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Stevenson, Robert Louis. Father Damien. Portland, Me.: Thomas B. Mosher.
Strong, Isobel. The Girl from Home. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Watson, James. The Dog Book. Part I. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1 net.
Wharton, Edith. *Italian Backgrounds.* Scribners. $2.50 net.
White, Fred M. The Crimson Blind. R. F. Fenno & Co.

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